The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 10, 1901.

The Week.

Among the awkward prophecies which are coming home to roost in these first days of the new century, this one by President McKinley's Philippine Commission should not be overlooked: "It is conceded . . . that if election confirms present policy, remnant of insurrection will disappear within sixty days by surrender of leaders and fading out of rank and file." The sixty days were up on Sunday, and a new dispatch from Judge Taft, not for electioneering purposes this time, would seem to be in order. Congress and the Administration are in the throes of raising an army of 60,000 men to deal with a "disappeared" insurrection. Secretary Root, for his part, refuses to take his place among the discredited prophets. He declares now that he never held out a hope of less men being needed in the Philippines after McKinley was reëlected. Perhaps not in so many words; but in his Canton speech of October 24 he spoke of the insurgent activity which had resulted in the killing and wounding of eighty-nine American officers and men within the previous six weeks, and said that Aguinaldo and his men were fighting "without purpose or reason or expectation of benefit, except upon the hopes held out to them by the Kansas City platform, and the belief that it was important to Mr. Bryan's cause that America should seem unsuccessful in the Philippines." What are they fighting for now, Mr. Root? The Kansas City platform is buried, Mr. Bryan's cause is dead, but the Filipinos fight on. What for?

Little attention has been attracted to the new treaty with Spain, now before the Senate, agreeing to buy for $100,000 three or four little islands of the Philippine archipelago which fall just outside the lines drawn in the treaty of Paris. Our Commissioners at Paris were instructed to buy these islands with the rest, and thought they were doing so; but they got mixed in their longitudes and latitudes, so that the new treaty and the extra $100,000 are made necessary to cure their blunder. In these circumstances, we are clear that the Commissioners—Judge Day, Senator Frye, and the others—ought to pay the money out of their own pockets. We know that they were the greatest and wisest diplomats that ever assembled in one place, for several of them have confessed that they were; and they would doubtless be willing to put down a handsome sum to have this strange oversight of theirs kept dark. Or, if necessary, an indemnifying bill could be passed by Congress, as in the case of unfortunate postmasters, blundering collectors of internal revenue, and so on. We must say, however, that Congress is now so mortified over the discovery of the gold brick it has purchased in the Philippines, that it would be more apt to fine and imprison the Commissioners for the islands they did buy, than to indemnify them for those they intended to buy and didn't know how to.

We heartily congratulate Mr. Oscar F. Williams, who was appointed Consul at Singapore on Thursday, on his success in once more landing a fat Government office. We have had deep sympathy for Mr. Williams's quest ever since we learned from his own pen what a truly remarkable man he is. We have also wondered and wondered that Mr. McKinley could for more than two years pay no heed to the great yearning for Mr. Williams's services which must have been felt throughout the State Department from Secretary to office-boy. Writing as United States Consul in Manila, under the early date of August 5, 1898, to the then Secretary of State, Mr. Day, Mr. Williams confides to him the fact that he seeks "appointive favor." "With pride" he recalls to Mr. Day's mind Commodore Dewey's report on April 18, that his assistance was "invaluable." Since that time, Mr. Williams continues, he knows that his "services to our navy, army, citizens, and nation have been much greater than before." Because of "narrow resources," Mr. Williams asks for Mr. Day's "recognition," and thus states his modest desires and his superior qualifications:

> "Could I be appointed general commissioner of customs of the Philippine Islands, lighthouse inspector, or general commissioner of agriculture, I should be honored and pleased . . . Then I was reared a farmer, and my business interests having always been along such lines, I have kept fully abreast with agricultural matters. Am a graduate of Cornell University, and was a teacher, lecturer, and author, and might well serve as Superintendent of Public Instruction. I need your recognition, and hope, by cable or otherwise, to have relief from present anxieties."

How honored Singapore will be at having such an all-around star within its firmament, we cannot begin to estimate. Mr. Williams succeeds Mr. Spencer Pratt, whose sole offence, apparently, was his belief in the wanton injustice of the American attitude towards the Filipinos.

Ex-President Harrison rejoins effectively to the Attorney-General's contention that the Constitution is "misshapen" if it will not allow us to do what we want to in Porto Rico and the Philippines. That depends on who shaped it and what they shaped it for. If they were against absolutism in any form, at home or abroad, and framed our charter of government so that such a thing could not exist under American jurisdiction, then their work was well done, beautifully shaped to its end. Anyhow, it is a strange plea for a lawyer to make, that the Constitution cannot mean so and so because that would limit our powers. To limit and define the powers of Government was one of the great aims of the Constitution. Attorney-General Griggs argued very much as Senator Morgan does in his latest incoherent canal report. Why, he says, if we have to abrogate the Clayton-Bulwer treaty before being able to build a canal, that would mean that one more than one-third of the Senate could defeat the wishes of the American people, and that would be ridiculous. But it is law. Morgan's idea, Griggs's idea, of what would be ridiculous, is not recognized in the books as a touchstone of Constitutional interpretation. The question is not what they think ought to be done, but what the Constitution and the Supreme Court say may be done. It is even possible that the framers of the Constitution would have found a new argument for making that instrument what they did, in the knowledge that a Griggs would arise in the fulness of time to say that it was ludicrous to suppose that an American President could not rule 8,000,000 Asiatics according to his own sweet will.

The Boston *Record*, referring to the appointment of Mr. John Harlan as Attorney-General of Porto Rico, is of the opinion that it was intended to please Senator Mason even more than Justice Harlan of the Supreme Court, the father of the appointee. The respect for Justice Harlan which is felt by all classes of citizens has restrained the press from much comment on this appointment. Criticism does not lie against him in any event, but it does lie against the President, that at a time when a case of immense importance is pending in the Supreme Court, one in which the policy of the Administration is more or less involved, the son of one of the judges is appointed to an important office. The appointee is presumably well qualified for the place, but this is the wrong time to make such a selection. Here, if anywhere, should the President avoid the very appearance of evil. The mere suggestion that the choice was made "even more to please Mason than the Harlans," conveys the censure which is passing *sotto voce* among lawyers wherever two or three are gathered together. Whatever else may be said of the appointment, it was exceedingly ill-timed, and justifies the suspicion of improper motives.

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Ex-Gov. Boutwell has been asked by a correspondent in this city his views as to the expediency of starting a new political party based upon Anti-Imperialism, the gold standard, tariff reform and civil-service reform, and opposition to Trusts. His reply is adverse to any such plan, for the reason that he considers the question whether we are to be a free republic or an empire governing distant provinces without representation, the absorbing and vital issue of the present time, and of such vast moment that it cannot be made a part of any collection of issues. He believes also that this issue will create a party for itself, because it is fundamental. In other words, it will draw adherents to itself, and create its own organization, because the principles involved in it are a part of the national life. The other issues will be with us always, and can be taken up after it is decided whether we are to be a republic or an empire. We concur with Gov. Boutwell fully in these views, and we are glad to have so clear an exposition of them as he has given in this letter. Public attention cannot be drawn in any effective way to secondary reforms so long as the underlying principles of the Government are in dispute.

Does anybody remember the noble rage with which the American press denounced Spain, three years ago, for her policy of deporting Cuban leaders? They were taken to Ceuta in Africa, and we called shame upon a cowardly and tyrannical Government that dared not leave a man even in a Cuban prison to infect the air with brave words about liberty and independence. Well, when we vowed to Heaven that no such monstrous policy had ever been heard of, we did not think that we should live to say ditto to it. But even in this sincere flattery of Spanish methods we are now indulging. Gen. MacArthur is to deport Philippine patriots to Guam. Mabini is old and in broken health; but because he will not bend the knee, off he goes. So of Del Pilar and the others. Americans are afraid of them, even in prison. Some one might hear them in their cells whispering about liberty, and that would never do. Yet some men profess to be indignant at Mark Twain for declaring that our flag in the Philippines is "polluted"!

The discussion of the Army Bill now going on in the Senate grows more interesting and suggestive every day. On Friday we got the frank confession from Mr. Teller of Colorado that, although two years ago he had said that there was no danger of Imperialism, he now took that back, and declared that there exists at this moment in the Philippine Islands an Imperial Government without an equal in history, under five men, who are strangers to the country, and unacquainted with its interests. The Colorado Senator went on:

> "The Czar of Russia is an absolute Czar. He has a council of sixty men who sit with him; but these sixty men are Russians. They are people of the country. They have their sympathies and their ambitions for Russia. But these Americans in the Philippine Islands are strangers in the country. Under the law they have a right there; but under God's law, which is higher than that, they have no place there at all."

Mr. Teller added that if he were President, he would apply to the Philippine Islands the same rule of action which was applied to Cuba. Meanwhile, however, he proclaimed his intention to vote to maintain the army under existing conditions as long as our flag flies in the Philippines. He appeared to feel that this was a rather illogical position to occupy, but said that if it was illogical, it was so "because there does not seem any better way out of it." Mr. Hoar sees a better way. He proposes to amend the pending bill by a provision that no further military force shall be used in the Philippines except such as may be necessary to keep order in places now under our peaceable control, and to protect persons or property entitled to such protection until the President shall have proclaimed amnesty for all political offences, shall have sought an armistice with those now in hostility to the United States, shall have invited ten or more of their leaders to come here and state the wishes of the Filipinos to the Executive and Congress, and shall have offered them transportation and safe conduct both ways.

If Secretary Root's letter regarding the proposed veterinary corps (since abandoned) means that he has thrown down the gauntlet to the bureaucrats, that he intends to take the public into his confidence, and let the country know what is the real trouble with the army, he has, in our judgment, adopted the proper course to achieve reform. It is time for some one in authority to speak out vigorously, and whoever does so will be at once supported by the country and the press. The public has too much business sense to approve an organization under which one bureau distributes the food of the soldier, a second his eating utensils, a third his clothing, and a fourth his pay, particularly when it is aware that one set of officers performs most of these duties in the navy. Still less will the public support such a system after reading the figures in Sunday's *Tribune* as to the expansion of these army bureaus. The Quartermaster's Department alone has 4,955 civilian employees, the Ordnance Bureau 3,200 civilian clerks, messengers, etc., and the Subsistence Department 580. Indeed, it would seem as if every ten soldiers required one civilian to help look after them, exclusive of the Engineer Department, most of whose 10,233 employees cannot be credited to the army, but to the purely civilian work of improving rivers and harbors.

To strengthen his hold on public sympathy, Secretary Root should also not fail to prevent such spoils appointments as those just announced of Lieut.-Col. Campbell and of Corporal Steunenberg. The first officer, an editor of an Illinois weekly and a country politician, has been jumped over the heads of sixty-six colonels, volunteer and regular, and given the rank of brigadier-general of volunteers because of his defence of McKinley in the press and on the stump during the last campaign. He is without a proper military record, and has not distinguished himself in the Philippines. Corporal Steunenberg, a brother of the Governor of Idaho, who recently upheld the President's Idaho strike policy, was similarly jumped over the heads of other officers in direct violation of a War Department promise. As long as such favoritism is acquiesced in, the Secretary of War lays himself open to the suspicion of preferring a political to a really military army.

"The Senate Committee on Military Affairs held a meeting to-day, and decided on some further amendments to the Army Bill. None of these changes are of great importance." So read the Washington dispatches of Thursday, which then stated, that the Committee adopted Senator Daniel's amendment for the retirement of Gens. Fitzhugh Lee and James H. Wilson as brigadier-generals in the regular army, and one, the author of which was, wisely enough, not named, for the promotion of Gen. Shafter to the rank of major-general on the retired list. We consider this action of very great importance, because it is another inexcusable raid upon the Treasury in the form of special pension legislation, similar to the indefensible placing of Congressman Boutelle upon the retired list of the navy as a captain for services rendered thirty-five years ago in an inferior rank. Gens. Lee and Wilson have been volunteer generals since 1898, but have not been under fire in that period or rendered any services which could not have been equally well performed by any regular army major or colonel. That they were brilliant cavalry leaders, on opposite sides, from 1861 to 1865, has nothing to do with their present status. As to Gen. Shafter's case, all the promotion within the gift of Congress could not conceal the fact that he wished to retreat several miles in the midst of the fighting at Santiago, and that he was physically and mentally unfitted for the command of an expedition which succeeded because of the bravery of his troops, and the ability of such remarkable subordinates as Lawton, Chaffee, Kent, and others.

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The most naïve contention that has been brought out in the discussions on the Grout Oleomargarine Bill, now before Congress, was that put forth by the Dairy Commissioner of Ohio on Friday before the Senate Committee on Agriculture. He said that he had found it almost impossible to prosecute successfully infractions of the Oleomargarine Law in the large cities of Ohio, "owing to the partiality of some people for that product." If this fails to be a conclusive argument for taxing it out of existence, it should at least have the credit of being the frankest statement of the case that has yet been made by the promoters of the bill. The conclusion evidently seemed a little too blunt, for the worthy dairyman from Ohio hastened to add that the cause of this deplorable state of affairs was the influence of oleomargarine dealers with the press and their solicitation of jurymen. It did not seem to occur to him that the cheapness of oleomargarine as compared with butter, and the satisfactory character of the substitute, might have something to do with it!

Current announcements of various groups of railways passing under joint control, through purchase of their shares by syndicated capital, are only a logical continuance of the process begun on a large scale two years ago. The past week's news in this direction has been taken as highly sensational, chiefly because of the very excitable condition of the stock market. But the developments are merely in line with the similar previous operations in the shares of such companies as the Chesapeake and Ohio, the Lake Shore, the Norfolk and Western, and the Long Island. Last week's report of the Interstate Commerce Commission called attention to the fact that between July 1, 1899, and November 1, 1900, one-eighth of this country's entire railway mileage, or 25,311 miles, had passed under the control of other lines.

Gov. Crane of Massachusetts, in his message to the Legislature on Thursday, furnishes another illustration of his quality as a business-like Executive, who indulges in no fireworks, but serves the State by quiet and hard work. Instead of rushing about all over the country while extravagance ran unchecked at home, he has given his time to the commonwealth's business, and among other things has visited the State institutions personally and unannounced. He has discovered that some of these institutions were never required to have their receipts deposited with the Treasurer, and their bills audited by the State Auditor, and he recommends the application of this system to all. He has found that the Legislature of 1884 authorized a topographical survey and map of the State at a cost not to exceed $40,000, but that a Commission is still carrying on the work, which has expended $253,874—and he urges the lawmakers to look into things before appropriating any more money. The system of managing the State prisons seems to him "complicated and unsystematic," with "no direct accountability," and he recommends that the offices of the Commissioner of Prisons and the General Superintendent of Prisons be combined, by transferring the powers of the General Superintendent to the Board of Commissioners, and by authorizing compensation to one member of that Board, who shall be designated as Chairman by the Governor. He has learned that the Metropolitan Water Board and the Metropolitan Sewerage Commission have duties of the same general character, and he points out that "it would be a decided gain in economy of administration if they were controlled by a single board." These are samples of Gov. Crane's excellent suggestions.

According to a detailed exhibit by a financial expert in the *Evening Post* on Thursday, the total increase of cost of five city departments during the past three years has been upwards of $23,000,000 for all boroughs. According to the State census of 1892, the population in the territory now comprised in Greater New York was a little under 3,000,000. By the Federal census of 1900 it was about 3,500,000, a gain of some 500,000 in eight years. It is fair to assume that in the past three years the population may have increased 200,000. Against this we have an increase of expenses in five departments of $23,000,000. These departments are police, fire, schools, health, and building. The largest increase is shown in the school department, where the per-capita cost has risen from $29.10 to $36.04. This increase is due chiefly to the Davis law, passed by the last Legislature, raising the salaries of teachers, and was probably necessary. At all events, Tammany is not chargeable with this nor with any other expenses made mandatory by the Legislature. Nor is Tammany responsible for any increase due to consolidation alone, since that scheme was decreed at Albany. For all the increase ordered, directly or indirectly, by the Legislature the Republican Machine is responsible, even though the Tammany members assisted. Responsibility attaches always and everywhere to the majority party.

While Lord Roberts was landing in England on Wednesday week, entering his Queen's presence with royal honors, and receiving in an earldom and the Star of the Garter the reward of his brilliant service in South Africa, the air was full of disquieting rumors that that service remains incomplete. Another landing was being planned at Cape Town —that of great guns from the fleet to guard against a possible uprising of the Cape Boers. Evidence gathers of the uneasiness of the situation throughout Cape Colony; and whether there is actual danger of a general uprising or not, there is no doubt that the British on the ground fear one, and that the flying columns of the Boer generals are constantly reinforced from British soil. It becomes daily clearer that the war can be fought out only at a desperate cost to the British. Nor is the admiration of the world for their unbeaten enemy a negligible quantity. It may be that the Boers with a fatal heroism will accept nothing less than complete independence, and reject all offers of conciliation less than that. No well-wisher of the British empire can fail to condemn utterly the present policy in South Africa, until conciliation has had its trial. Mr. Chamberlain has promised such a policy. Is he waiting for a graver need before putting it in effect?

With the opening of the new century the provinces of Australia ceased to be separate colonies of the British Empire, and became original States of the Commonwealth of Australia. Confederation was not attained without considerable opposition. The negotiations necessary to bring the colonies themselves into accord extended over eleven years, and there remained the more difficult question of the relations of the proposed commonwealth to the Imperial Government. The final adjustment left to the new colony the largest measure of independence, and the Earl of Hopetoun, who has just been inaugurated with imposing ceremonies as first Governor-General of the commonwealth, will find that his executive functions are almost *nil*. His office is none the less important, for he represents the British idea, often in the past obscured in Australia, but now quickened through the confederation itself and through the South African war. It is no mean state that joins the sisterhood of British relations. With a population already of some three and a half million people and a land of unusual fertility, adaptability to grazing purposes, and mineral resources, Australia has every assurance of great national prosperity. One who has met Australians in travel will not have failed to mark in them a new type of character, something between the English and the American, but perhaps more like the latter. It is this flexibility to new conditions, combined with loyalty to the national tradition, that is admirable in the British colonist. England has learned well the lesson of the American Revolution, and to-day her glory lies far less in the "silent, sullen peoples" she holds subject than in the independent English commonwealths, sisters in power, who are proud to own her mother—the Canadas and Australias.

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MR. HILL'S GOLD-STANDARD BILL.

Congressman Hill of Connecticut has introduced a bill to carry out the first section of the Gold-Standard Act, which reads as follows:

> "That the dollar, consisting of 25 8-10 grains of gold, nine-tenths fine, as established by section 3511 of the Revised Statutes of the United States, shall be the standard unit of value; and *all* forms of money issued or coined by the United States shall be maintained at a parity of value with this standard, and it shall be the duty of the Secretary of the Treasury to maintain such parity."

Inasmuch as Congress, while laying this mandate upon the Secretary, did not prescribe any method of maintaining the parity of the silver dollar with the standard unit, nor provide any means therefor, Mr. Hill offers a bill which directs the Secretary to exchange gold for legal-tender silver dollars when presented to the Treasury in the sum of five dollars or any multiple thereof, and provides that all laws for the maintenance of the reserve fund in the Treasury relating to United States notes shall be made applicable to the exchange of legal-tender silver dollars. In other words, the powers which the Secretary now holds to replenish the gold reserve in case of need for greenback redemption, shall be extended also to silver redemption. An additional section of the bill provides for coining the silver bullion still remaining in the Treasury into subsidiary coin (halves, quarters, and dimes), instead of silver dollars.

The first thing to be noticed and commended in this bill is its simplicity. It says that the duty imposed upon the Secretary by existing law for maintaining the gold standard shall be executed by redeeming the silver dollars just as the greenbacks are redeemed, and that the means for performing the duty shall be the same in the one case as in the other. The argument for the passage of such a bill is equally simple and straightforward. It runs in this way: "Congress has imposed a duty upon the Secretary without providing means for executing it. It is very important that the parity of the silver dollar with gold should be maintained if ever it be threatened. If parity is threatened, it shall be maintained by the means herein set forth. If it is not threatened, of course the means will not be resorted to."

Logical as this is, and important as it is that the commerce of the country should not be exposed to the hazard of a failure to maintain parity, experience tells us that Congress does not always observe logic or consistency in its legislative action. If such had been its habit, it would not have left the present gap in the law which Mr. Hill now seeks to close. Our monetary legislation of the past thirty years would have been very different from what it is if the dictates of reason had been the governing consideration in regard to it. The question overriding all others in the minds of Congressmen has been, "How shall I vote and act so as to secure a reëlection?" This will be the uppermost consideration when Mr. Hill's measure comes to a vote—if it is acted upon at all in the present Congress, or in whatever Congress it is acted upon.

It is safe to say that there never was a time more favorable than the present, so far as public opinion goes, for passing such a measure. It is evident now that if the Currency Bill of the last session, which contained the substance of Mr. Hill's proposed measure, had been passed by the Senate in the form in which it came from the House, it would have been universally acquiesced in. The Democrats would have made no more opposition to it in the campaign than they did to the bill which actually passed, which was none at all. On the other hand, the Republicans would have been better pleased than they were with the more timid, more complicated, and less effective measure of the Senate. Everybody was under the impression, when Congress adjourned, that it was a bill to establish the gold standard beyond peradventure; and when the fact became manifest some time later that this was not exactly true, but that the parity of the silver dollar was still subject to some contingencies, there was dissatisfaction in the public mind, and some apprehension in business circles. This apprehension will never be wholly removed until some such measure as that of Mr. Hill is passed. It is worth recalling that both the President and the Secretary of the Treasury recommended the curing of this defect in the law at the opening of the present session of Congress.

Mr. Hill was the first to point out the fact that the act of the last session, the so-called Gold-Standard Act, really lessened, instead of increasing, the direct powers of the Secretary of the Treasury to maintain the parity of all kinds of money with gold. Under the laws in operation previously—the laws under which Secretary Carlisle acted—there was no limit to the Secretary's power for that purpose to issue and sell bonds in order to procure coin. He could sell any bonds authorized by law, for such price and on such terms as he deemed advantageous to the public interest. The coin so purchased became a part of the general fund of the Treasury, and could be paid out for any and all liabilities. Under the new law the authority to sell bonds is restricted to a definite purpose (that of redeeming greenbacks), separate divisions are created in the Treasury for separate purposes, and even the authority to use any surplus in the general fund for maintaining parity is taken away. These are by no means alarming features. There is more of good than of evil in them, taken as a whole, but they serve to show that there are still defects in our legislation which should be repaired before any strain comes upon our currency system from over-speculation, bad harvests, political complications, war in Europe, or other casualty. Our money ought to be so good that the thought of its unsoundness shall never enter anybody's mind.

A PHILIPPINE ARMY.

The Senate debate on the Army Bill promises to be rich in revelations and suggestions. Such after-lunch indiscretions as Senator Hawley's mutterings about a threatened war with "some European Power" we may pass by with a shrug, but Senator Sewell, himself a military man, uttered some blunt truths which should arrest the attention of the country. He frankly admitted that we should need in the Philippines 70,000 men, not only this year, but "next year and, perhaps, for several years to come." Thereupon Senator Bacon of Georgia brought forward a most timely and pertinent proposal. It was that the Military Committee prepare a special bill for a special Philippine army. We earnestly hope that he will press his amendment and insist upon its being debated. It is clearly in the interest of the organization of the army itself, and not less evidently is it demanded on the score of fair dealing with the people.

We are now asked to pay the cost of an army of 100,000 men. No one asserts that more than 30,000 are necessary for the United States proper. All our garrisons and coast defences could be amply manned at that figure. It is into the Philippine gulf that we have to pour the 70,000. Then why not be open and businesslike about it and call that force the Philippine army, legislating for it separately? It is not, strictly speaking, the United States army, unless we allow that the tail should wag the dog. From a purely military point of view the United States is but a small appendage of the Philippines. They require, roughly, three soldiers to our one. If three-quarters of the effectives of the army, and more than three-quarters of its annual cost, are chargeable to the Philippines, common sense demands that names shall be equivalent to things, and this force be known explicitly as the Philippine army.

This would only assimilate our methods to those of other nations having subject colonies. England and France and Germany do not lump all military expenses confusingly together in one common bill. France has her "corps d'armée en Algérie," her "division of occupation" in Tunis, and so on. English regiments are supported and known according to their place of service—

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Gibraltar, Ceylon, Hong Kong, Bermuda, etc. The fifty-two battalions on service in India are designated as a part of the Indian, not the English, establishment. Emperor William sent to China, not a corps of the German army, but a plainly described "East-Asiatic Corps," and as such the money had to be voted for it by the Reichstag.

Detailed accounts, specific appropriations, are of the essence of republican government. To give the taxpayers a perfect understanding where their money goes in the various branches of the public service, is the first duty of those who bear rule. Of what use is it for Secretary Gage to send in to Congress and give to the country the grand total estimate of the next fiscal year "for the military establishment, $140,000,000"? What we ought to have is an itemized account telling us precisely how much the Philippine army costs us—how much to raise it, how much to send it across the sea, how much to feed it, how much to care for the wounded and fever-smitten in hospital and camp, how much to bring home the bodies of the dead. Of course, the figures for all these things can be laboriously extracted from unread departmental reports. But they should be not only easily accessible, but prominently displayed. They would be if we had a separate Philippine army, with all the items in the appropriation bill providing for it voted independently.

Senator Bacon's suggestion is in the line of scientific method. The first thing that science does when investigating any phenomenon is to isolate it, so far as possible. The chemist, the biologist, go to infinite pains to remove their immediate material of study from every disturbing influence. Divide and conquer, is a scientific as well as military maxim. A substance by itself *in vacuo*, a germ isolated from every species with which it might be confounded, are studied and their secrets torn from them as they never could be if left in confused masses. We need such segregation of our Philippine phenomenon. It is convenient for those who would slur over its peculiarities and difficulties to represent them all as an inherent part of our national life. But this is neither fair nor scientific. Every approach we can make towards getting our Philippine microbe in a pure culture by itself, or on a sterilized slide beneath our microscope, will help us to understand exactly what is the deadly infection we are getting from the President's "gems and glories of the tropic seas." Mr. Bacon's argument that the Philippine army should thus be put in a category by itself, in order that the people may see precisely what it is and costs, is therefore perfectly sound and scientific.

Republicans cannot decently object. They declare that the Philippines are not a part of the United States. They ought, accordingly, to be glad of everything that emphasizes the distinction which is so dear to their hearts when it is a question of giving the Filipinos the benefit of Constitutional guarantees. If the Constitution does not follow the flag, the more foreign we can make the flag appear the better. The cases before the Supreme Court might be in better shape for the Government if the Attorney-General had been able to assure the judges that it was not, narrowly considered, a United States army at all, but a Philippine army, that was carrying the flag to the islands. A jurist, everybody will admit, might well have doubts about the Constitution following a Philippine army. Besides, there may be here just what we need in order to get up a real popular enthusiasm about the Philippine war. Mr. Howells has recently remarked how unaccountably the "lyric cry of the Philippine Purchase" has stuck in the throats of American poets. If we had a distinct Philippine army, with its chasseurs de Luzon and tirailleurs de Mindanao, the silent and apparently shamefaced Muse might find her voice.

GOV. ODELL'S PLEA FOR ECONOMY.

The message which Gov. Odell sent to the Legislature on January 2 is essentially one long plea for economy, and the efficiency which acompanies economy, in the conduct of the State Government. Parts of the document are of the conventional order—discussions, for example, of systems of taxation and of methods of administration, which invite and must receive attention hereafter; but its most significant features are the careful analysis of the wasteful manner in which the business of the commonwealth is now conducted, and the specific recommendation of many ways in which money can be saved.

The first abuse which the Governor strikes at is the extravagant expenditure for the collection of the collateral-inheritance tax—$1,408,643 during the past four years for the collection of $11,765,211. County Treasurers have been paid more than $69,000 a year, on the average, in fees for merely signing duplicate receipts and transmitting the money to the Comptroller; the appraisement of property has cost more than $92,000 annually; and there have been "very large" legal expenses besides. Mr. Odell holds that one-half of the sum expended would have been ample—in other words, that at least $150,000 per year might be saved.

This is only one illustration of a spirit which generally prevails. The force of employees in the Legislature has been largely increased through "a supplemental list," without any definite limitation as to their number. Under such circumstances "extravagance and abuses are apt to result," and the Governor recommends an amendment to the legislative law that will fix the number and compensation of employees. There has been at the same time a "vast increase" in the expenditures for clerical and other help in the departments, and the Governor asks for a "thorough pruning." It has become too frequently the practice to make appropriations in gross sums, and Mr. Odell recommends that all items of expenditure be made more in detail, "so as to give fuller effect to the veto power of the Executive against unnecessary expenditures."

Abuses which call for correction have grown up under the system of employing special attorneys, instead of having the work performed by the legal department of the State. This has been true particularly of the Lunacy Commission and the Forest Preserve Board, through which "a great amount of money has been expended for such services." Mr. Odell thinks that there are perhaps instances where the services of special attorneys may be justified, but that "in most cases" they are unnecessary and unjustifiable.

The multiplication of expensive commissions is a great evil, which the Governor vigorously attacks. The Board of Mediation and Arbitration, the Bureau of Labor Statistics, and the State Factory Inspector's department cost altogether $172,293 a year. Mr. Odell recommends that the three be consolidated into one Department of Labor, which could do the work of all more efficiently than is now possible, better conserve the interests of labor, and save at least $72,000 annually. There is a Charities Board of twelve members, with a Secretary and other employees, requiring an appropriation of $51,620 last year. The Governor thinks that their duties could be more properly attended to by a single Commissioner, working in connection with certain State officers. Such a change, he says, would reduce expenses about $25,000 a year "without impairing the efficiency of the work." There are eight Prison Commissioners, with an office force, demanding $13,000 last year. Their duties, in Mr. Odell's opinion, could be discharged with equal efficiency by a single Commissioner acting with certain State officers, thereby saving at least $10,000 a year. The Board of Health has three members, and a large office force, costing $42,000 a year. One competent man, the Governor thinks, might easily perform their duties, provided that the supervision of tuberculosis and glanders in cattle were transferred to the Department of Agriculture, where it belongs, with a large reduction of the present expense. The Forest Preserve Board and the Forestry, Fish, and Game Commission duplicate each other's work to a great extent, and each has been conducted extravagantly, the Board having expended over $12,000 for special counsel, and the Commission $82,875 for printing and publishing reports, salaries of Commissioners and employees, and other incidental expenses of maintenance. The Governor

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recommends that the two departments be consolidated, by which he estimates that $35,000 might be saved.

Mr. Odell has made the interesting discovery that there is a Superintendent of Weights and Measures, who receives an annual salary of $500 a year, while "apparently he may not perform any duties oftener than once in ten years"; and he recommends the abolishment of this sinecure. He points out that the expenses of printing have increased from $108,435 in 1880 to $583,191 in 1900, and tells the Legislature that "it is your duty to curtail in every way this wasteful extravagance." He urges the abolition of the fee system by which three county officers in New York and as many in Kings receive grossly excessive incomes, reaching as high as $100,000 a year in some cases, and the substitution of salaries. He finds that the Lunacy Commission has been extravagant and wasteful, the cost for buildings and equipments now reaching $909 for each patient, and the bi-monthly meeting of stewards and superintendents at Albany being needless; and he expresses the startling opinion that "with no harm to these institutions a saving of at least three-quarters of a million dollars can be effected in this department."

Gov. Odell has taken a leaf out of the experience of Gov. Tilden. In closing his first message to the New York Legislature, in 1875, the latter made a powerful plea for attention to "the ordinary conduct of Government." By this he meant economy, efficiency, and justice in the administration of the business of the State. With what mastery of facts and methods he followed up this general proposition by exposure and punishment of the canal thieves, everybody remembers. Gov. Odell is, like Tilden, appallingly specific. Every Governor perfunctorily favors economy. Gov. Roosevelt's first message contained a paragraph expressing the usual pious and vague hopes on that subject. But his successor strikes his hand upon the spot, and says, "Thou ailest here, and here." By abolishing this sinecure, by cutting down these swollen fees, by consolidating those departments, by curbing this extravagance and preventing that waste, the quiet business man from Newburgh shows how a saving might easily be effected great enough to pay the interest on the State debt.

It is a refreshing return to right principles. Gov. Odell does not say, what Tiden did, that the preoccupations of war and its *sequelæ* had prevented people from attending to the great and standing problems of government; but it would have been true if he had said it. Gov. Roosevelt's first message began with a glorification of the Spanish war; and it is clear that the main reason why he left to his successor all this work of retrenchment and the application of business methods to the administration of public affairs, is that he was giving more thought to our responsibilities as a world-power than to the (to him) infinitely wearisome details of the business of the State. In his speech before the Hamilton Club of Chicago, on April 10, 1899, Gov. Roosevelt preached the gospel of expansion and adventure as the national cure-all. "We cannot sit huddled within our own borders and avow ourselves merely an assemblage of well-to-do hucksters." If we do, we shall "rot like China." But what is the rottenness of China? It is extravagance, waste, sinecures, cheating, corruption, overtaxation—in other words, exactly the hidden diseases which the scalpel of Governor Odell has laid bare in the government of New York State!

Final judgment upon Roosevelt or upon Odell it is too soon to pronounce. This, however, may confidently be said—that the latter already shows himself nearer the type of Governor which the times demand, and towards which the instincts of the people are evidently turning in this period of our development.

THE REAL DIFFICULTIES IN CHINA.

The daily dispatches from China are obviously little more than daily rumors. It is clear, however, that the Powers are only at the beginning of their troubles. The Joint Note has already become a thing of comparative unimportance, and the question whether the Chinese plenipotentiaries will accept it, or not, has come down to a matter of verbal fencing. "Certainly, we will sign," said Li Hung Chang, in effect, "but we reserve the right to negotiate for better terms." "That will not do," sternly replied the foreign Ambassadors; "the Note represents our irreducible minimum." "Very well, then," sighed the Chinese negotiators, "but you will at least tell us just what that indemnity amounts to which we are to undertake to pay." This was really cruel, for the Powers could not agree among themselves on this point. So they had to ask for more time. Now time is the one thing China has most of, and every day's delay puts her in a better position and the Powers in a worse. Meanwhile, the real difficulties of the situation are thrusting themselves through all this diplomatic by-play.

Foremost among these is the financial and industrial condition of China. It is this which makes the demands and expectations of the Powers little short of preposterous. The indemnities to be exacted of the Chinese Government are too great for her possibly to pay; yet they are mounting every day, for, whatever else the Powers may differ about, they are agreed that the expenses of their military expeditions shall be defrayed by the Chinese themselves. China cannot be so unreasonable as to refuse to pay the cost of the armies which have been looting and burning and killing in her territory. The longer they stay there the bigger the indemnity. China simply cannot pay it.

This the Powers practically admit, but they say, magnanimously, We will lend her the money, and she can give as security railway concessions and other franchises, and we will recoup ourselves out of the commercial exploitation of the Chinese empire. Just here, however, the warnings of Sir Robert Hart, who speaks with expert authority on this subject, come in with solemn pertinence. He denies that there is any such Chinese orange to be squeezed. The similar sanguine expectations of an enormous trade expansion, entertained when the treaties of fifty years ago were negotiated for the sake of securing a great Chinese commerce, have never, says Sir Robert, been realized. The new dreams are destined to like disappointments. "Eagerness to supply does not necessarily mean a corresponding demand." The Chinese people do not require foreign commerce. They have "the best food in the world, rice; and the best clothing, cotton, silk, and fur; and they do not need to buy a penny's worth elsewhere." Undoubtedly there are great natural resources in China undeveloped; but the only increase in trade which can come from opening them up will be necessarily slight and slow, new tastes and wants and new purchasing power having to be created before new merchandise can be sold. The Powers that are ready to put millions into China are likely, therefore, to have to wait a long time before they get them out again.

Another great difficulty in dealing with China in the way proposed lies in the nature of the Chinese Government. It has long been a kind of go-as-you-please affair. Each of the eighteen provinces has been a little kingdom by itself, its viceroy being practically supreme in his own sphere, and the Central Government interfering as little as possible. It is this state of the case which makes a treaty with the Mantchu Government so precarious a support throughout what Gibbon called "the vast equality of China." The Pekin Government perhaps does not want to enforce it; perhaps cannot. Indeed, Chinese statesmen have been known in the past to regard treaties primarily as a kind of toy with which to amuse, or a sop with which to placate, foreigners. M. Desjardins cites in the last *Revue des Deux Mondes* the report of a Chinese General to the Emperor in 1841, in which he said, referring to a treaty which he had negotiated, that he had "thought it well to yield momentarily, and to promise the barbarians what they demanded," always having it in mind to seize the ceded territory again at a favorable opportunity. The Marquis Tsing defended in the *Asiatic Quarterly*,

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a dozen years ago, the Chinese practice of disregarding treaty obligations, because, as he said with much force, "China had signed them with a knife at her throat, and without knowing to what she was binding herself." All this aside, the practical autonomy of the separate provinces will make it very difficult to enforce guarantees agreed upon at Pekin. The United States will be in no condition to complain. We cannot maintain the treaty rights of Chinese in our territory. We express sorrow and pay an indemnity when Chinese subjects are killed; and China will do as much as that.

The upshot of all is an obvious recurrence of late to the plan of parting Chinese territory among the Powers. Russia's separate agreement with China, which practically puts Mantchuria under a Russian protectorate, is a sign of the new drift of policy. Of course, the Russian authorities protest their innocence. They are simply carrying out and safeguarding their contract of 1896 for the construction of the Mantchurian railroad. But the net result is clear. A Russian "political resident" at Mukden is to have "general control" of this Chinese dependency three times the size of Great Britain. Mantchuria is practically Russian territory from now on. It would seem as if this Russian action furnished exactly the case contemplated in the third article of the Anglo-German agreement—that is, the use by another Power of "the complications in China in order to obtain, under any form whatever, territorial advantages." In such an event, Germany and Great Britain were to "come to a preliminary understanding as to the steps to be taken for the protection of their own interests in China." But then, such "protection" may simply mean that Germany and England will feel free to cancel their agreement not to take any Chinese territory themselves. This would be in line with the growing impression in Berlin that Count Waldersee will not be allowed to come home without some new German provinces as trophies, and with the confidence of English army officers that the year 1901 is to see a great British expedition up the Yang-Tse.

HUXLEY'S BIOGRAPHY.

A year ago, in talking with Henry James of the flood of biographies which the century had produced in England, and of the wonderful addition to English literature which they had made, he remarked to me that he had recently spoken of the same thing to a French friend, who concurred in his expression of surprise at the absence of anything of the same kind in France, but thought that this great lacune in French prose was due to the fact that the private lives of very few French literary or artistic men would bear description. This is a somewhat lamentable confession, but I suppose it is true. I think that the finest contribution that England has made to the stream of literature in this century consists in the biographies which have poured from her press. This work of biography is partly political, partly ecclesiastical, partly scientific, but it always does honor to the country, and to the profession to which the subject belonged. The Oxford movement alone, in the thirties, has produced a batch of books which no "gentleman's library should be without," and of which every Englishman may well be proud. To begin with, take Burke, and Pitt and Johnson and Chatham, then Wellington and Peel and Cobden, then Palmerston and Macaulay and Tennyson; and, among the scientific men, Lyell, and Darwin and Huxley. To be the contemporary or countryman of these is certainly, as Cowper says, "fame enough for any private man." I do not think it is going too far to say that whatever success England has achieved during the past century has been largely due to the frequency with which these biographies have been placed before the youth of the nation. Our poet Longfellow has said no truer, as well as finer, thing than that

> "We can make our lives sublime,
> And departing leave behind us
> Footprints on the sands of time."

I have frequently ventured on the proposition, in these columns, that our youth owe more of their education to the lives which they read, and the examples in our schoolhouses which they witness, than to the instruction which they receive, even when "the flag" is flying from the roof. It is the man whom the boy is taught to admire in his earlier years who largely determines his future.

I have just been reading one of the most instructive and brilliant of English lives, that of Professor Huxley. He began life in a way in which most Americans love to think they began it themselves—that is, as "a poor boy." There was procured for him, with the usual difficulty, the post of assistant surgeon in the navy, a place in which he passed four or five years of obscure drudgery without really gaining for himself a secure foothold on the official ladder. When he left the navy and wished to marry, he had to pass through the usual process of knocking at many doors, in many parts of the world, without meeting with any satisfactory response. But as soon as he had definitely chosen science as his province, and determined that truth alone should be his pursuit, his rise was rapid.

I am not competent to estimate properly the value of his scientific work, but the world has placed him in the front rank. I am competent, however, to estimate his character, which has, from his first year to his last, excited my unmixed admiration. Darwin's appearance on the scene in England, with his doctrine of evolution, was really not unlike the appearance of Erasmus at Oxford, 400 years ago, with "the new learning." But Darwin would have made poor progress, save for the aid of Huxley. Darwin had wonderful scientific sagacity, and promulgated his new gospel with a winning modesty, but it was too much modesty for the world in which it appeared. It was a world brought up under the influence of the clergy, in literal acceptance of the Biblical theories of the creation and the growth of man and his world. The Church and the upper classes in England were dead-set against Darwin's theories. The idea that man was evolved from some sort of monkey was enough to discredit them. All "the best people," to use the *Tribune's* phrase, believed that man had been created in the Garden of Eden, 6,000 years ago, and woman out of one of Adam's ribs, and not only this, but that it was impious to doubt it—an opinion that still lingers. These beliefs, although slightly disturbed by Sir Charles Lyell, still held their ground firmly at the time of the British Association meeting at Oxford in 1860.

I do not believe that there was any country in the world in which the union between Church and State was then so strong. The social as well as the religious prejudices of the country were with the Church, not simply as a religious institution, but as property, which, to an Englishman, is a very sacred thing. Until very lately the "squarson," as he was called, otherwise the minister who preached in the church and at the same time owned the parish, was a very familiar figure in English life. Thus men who attacked the Church's doctrine arrayed against themselves almost the whole of English society. Consequently, when a man as popular and of as much charm as the Bishop of Oxford led his forces in defence of orthodox views of man's creation, it required great courage to attack him. That courage Darwin had not probably, but Huxley was there, and listened to the Bishop's absurd ridicule of the theory that man was descended from a monkey with the same joy of battle which Cromwell felt in seeing the Scots descend from the heights above Dunbar.

Huxley's reply to the Bishop, sternly rebuking him for attacking with flippancy a great master of a science of which he was profoundly ignorant, was one of the most striking incidents of the century, and one of the most far-reaching in its effects. It not only bowled the Bishop over and destroyed his influence, but it raised Darwinism, at one stroke, to a height at which no parson could assail it without rendering himself a little ridiculous. It placed Huxley, too, at once in the front rank not only of scientific men, but of controversialists, and revealed to the world the fact that he was the foremost of English dialecticians. The rest of his career was a series of unbroken triumphs, in which his virtues as a man were no less fully displayed than his keenness and vigor and sagacity as a philosopher. His career was cut short; he fell a victim at last, as so many other eminent men have done, to his eagerness for work. There has been rarely a better illustration of a man's physical ruin through the ardor of his own temperament.

Huxley remained, during the rest of his life, noted for his antagonism to the old orthodox interpretation of Scripture. In fact, he was, for a time, the *bête-noire* of parsons, but they gradually became converted, or at least accustomed, to his views. The last time I saw him was the year before his death, in the dining-room of the Athenæum Club, surrounded by a considerable number of ecclesiastical dignitaries, who were just about to lunch. On the strength of my slight acquaintance with him in New York, I asked him to lunch at the same table with me, and jokingly expressed my wonder at his willingness to venture into a retreat in which he was so completely surrounded by "clerks in holy orders." He smilingly repudiated the thought that there was any danger in the situation, and de-

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clared that he lived on the best of terms with them, as long as they let him alone.

He was really, though very fond of dialectics, no stirrer-up of strife. It was not possible to do as much as he did to shake established religious beliefs without exciting a good deal of religious controversy, which he never shirked. His two principal antagonists in this field were the late Duke of Argyll and Mr. Gladstone—Mr. Gladstone, because, though a past-master in politics and political economy, he was never able to divest himself of an interest in theology, though for theological controversy he was not thoroughly equipped; and the Duke of Argyll, because he had an extraordinary conceit of his own omniscience. Huxley never avoided these frays, but he never sought them, although minds like Gladstone's, through their want of logical training, excited his ire. His own intellectual organ was most powerful, and was equal to any kind of work, from comforting the poor to speculating on the origin of species. He is an immense loss to England, as well as to science, but he has found in his son a rare piece of good fortune, a biographer worthy of him. E. L. G.

THE AMERICAN HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION.

DETROIT, December 30, 1900.

The meeting of the American Historical Association at Detroit, December 27-29, though shadowed by the absence of the President of the Association, Dr. Edward Eggleston, on account of sickness, and by the lamented death of Professor Moses Coit Tyler, a founder and one of the most distinguished members of the organization, was nevertheless, in some respects, one of the most interesting and important yet held. Of those who went to Detroit, a larger proportion than usual were, of course, from the States of the Middle West, but the attendance of Eastern members was gratifying evidence that the plan of holding sessions in different parts of the country has not yet worked a corresponding division in the ranks of those attending. The representation from the South continues small, and there are still a good many teachers and writers of history elsewhere who fail to attend; but the Association unquestionably tends to bring together, more and more, quite the larger part of the historical group in the United States and Canada. The sessions of Friday were held at Ann Arbor, with the University of Michigan as host; and both at Ann Arbor and at Detroit there was the accustomed provision of social functions, and the same generous hospitality which has long greeted the Association wherever it has gone.

With the rapidly expanding activities of the Association, and the increasing importance of its business side, it has been feared by some that its functions as a learned body might decline. So far as the composition of the attendance goes, it does not appear that this has yet taken place, or that the papers presented, though not seldom touching closely upon present problems, have lost anything in seriousness and scholarly importance. Of the papers read at Detroit, two stand out as especially notable. In a paper on "The Legend of Marcus Whitman," Prof. E. G. Bourne of Yale pretty effectually demolished (it is to be hoped, once for all) the time-honored story of the supreme political significance of Whitman's famous ride. The topic was not, of course, new. Hubert Bancroft and others have been sceptical about the matter, and one investigator, at least, has had to suffer somewhat of social persecution in consequence of unbelief. It was reserved for Professor Bourne to show, by detailed and indubitable proofs, the utter untrustworthiness of the story, and to put in its true light the significance of the struggle for Oregon. Whitman's journey to Washington, thrilling as it was, was without bearing on the political situation, and was made in the interest of his missionary work, and not, as the legend has had it, to rouse the American people to a sense of their danger from British aggression. With the Whitman legend goes also the companion notion that Oregon was in serious danger. The whole story is one of the most remarkable pieces of myth-making in our history. Incidentally, the arraignment of writers, some of them historians of note, who have repeated the story without troubling themselves to investigate it, and even, in some instances, with pretty certain proof that it was without foundation, forms a rather depressing commentary on the dangers of historical narration, even in our own day.

The paper by Professor Dunning of Columbia, on "The Breakdown of Reconstruction," raised questions of a different sort. Professor Dunning reviewed with great clearness the Constitutional expedients lately resorted to in the Southern States to get rid of the negro vote, and contrasted the present situation—with its practical disfranchisement of a large proportion of the blacks—with the results which the friends of reconstruction professed to anticipate. In Professor Dunning's opinion, the present policy of discrimination seemed to indicate that, while the reappearance of the objectionable incidents of slavery was not to be apprehended, the advent of a period in which the two races, though legally equal, must nevertheless live on terms of distinct inequality, was clearly indicated. The discussion of the paper brought out a spirited defence of the abolition spirit from Professor Hart of Harvard, to whom the conclusion of Professor Dunning's legal survey seemed indefensible, and some interesting statements from Mr. Percy N. Booth of Louisville, Ky., on the changing aspect of the negro problem in the border States. It is gratifying to note, in this connection, the appointment by the American Economic Association, which also met at Detroit, of a special committee to study the negro question.

Of the other papers and addresses, those most worthy of special mention were "The Date of the Ignatian Epistles," by Prof. F. A. Christie of the Meadville Theological School; "The Origin of the Apostles' Creed," by Professor McGiffert; "The Turning-Points in the History of British Administration in India," by Prof. H. Morse Stephens; and "Party Struggles in Missouri, 1861-1865," by Prof. S. B. Harding of Indiana University.

The most important matter of business before the Association was the question of approving the suggestion of a coöperative history of America, to be prepared under the direction of a committee, and published with the official endorsement of the Association. The proposition, after long and careful discussion, had commended itself to the Council, and was submitted to the Association with their favorable recommendation. After earnest debate, it was voted to lay the matter over until the next meeting, at which time the Council are asked to report more fully their views as to the way in which the proposed work should be carried out. The suggestion of the Council, of serious importance in itself, served to emphasize sharply a point which has for some time been growing in prominence—that, namely, of the relation between the Association and the national Government, from which it holds its charter, and the extent of its obligation to refrain from the treatment of subjects having for the present generation the possibility of personal or political controversy. While such work as the publication of the Calhoun letters, edited by Professor Jameson for the Historical Manuscripts Commission, and the efforts of the Public Archives Commission to enlist the United States and the several States in the care of their records, has much political significance, it was thought by some that the preparation of a narrative history whose judgments on men and events would have the official approval of the Association, was a different sort of thing from the publication of documents and monographs, and something to be entered upon only after careful deliberation. The matter will undoubtedly be threshed out at the Washington meeting, a year hence.

Changes in official personnel were more than ordinarily numerous this year. Continued ill health made it necessary for Prof. Herbert B. Adams to resign the secretaryship of the Association, an office which he has filled from the beginning with devotion and success. In future, the Association will have two secretaries, Mr. A. Howard Clark of the Smithsonian Institution and Professor Haskins of the University of Wisconsin. Mr. R. G. Thwaites was compelled by other duties to relinquish the chairmanship of the Historical Manuscripts Commission, though retaining his membership upon it, and his place as chairman was filled by the appointment of Prof. Herbert L. Osgood of Columbia. Mr. David J. Hill, Assistant Secretary of State, was added to the Public Archives Commission. The new President of the Association is Charles Francis Adams; and the new Vice-Presidents—prospective Presidents by custom—Prof. H. B. Adams and Capt. Mahan.

The announcement of the death of Prof. Moses Coit Tyler was made to the Association by President Angell, during the session at Ann Arbor. The announcement was not unexpected, as news of Professor Tyler's serious illness had greeted the members upon their arrival at Detroit, and cast a gloom over the meeting from the beginning. A charter member of the Association, and one of the two or three who had most to do with bringing it into existence, he gave to it freely of his counsel, was at his death its First Vice-President, and would have been its next President had he lived. Uniting, in singular perfectness, the qualities of sound scholarship, keen and delicate critical judgment, and a pure and lovable character, the charm of his gracious presence endeared him to all who knew him, and to none more than to his colleagues and friends in the American Historical Association, with whom he had so long regularly met. The Association placed upon its records resolutions expressive of regret at his death and appreciation of his services, but no formal action was required either to appraise his worth or to insure the grateful perpetuation of his memory.

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THE AMERICAN ECONOMIC ASSOCIATION.

DETROIT, December 31, 1900.

Detroit's reputation as the "Convention City" was in no wise lessened last week when the American Historical and the American Economic Associations, after a year of separation, again met in joint session in that place. All of the many details, both business and social, in the arrangements for the meetings had been carefully planned, and were admirably executed. The attendance was large, with a noticeable preponderance of Western over Eastern representation. Besides the problem of distance which rapid transportation has not wholly solved, the time of year in which the meetings are held serves to diminish the numbers present. Yet, after considerable discussion, both associations have decided to meet at the same time in 1901, as it seems impossible to find any other date when an attendance so nearly representative can be secured. It is to be hoped that the movement towards the establishment of a uniform convention week may in the near future be productive of results.

The meetings of the Economic Association were again, as they have been for many years, devoted almost exclusively to practical questions, only one paper, of thirty minutes' length, being concerned with economic theory. The first session of this, the thirteenth annual meeting, on Thursday morning, December 27, was occupied with the consideration of the taxation of quasi-public corporations. Dr. Frederic C. Howe of Cleveland opened the discussion with a searching analysis of State laws and Supreme Court decisions relating to the taxation of this form of corporations. The search revealed no fundamental plan or principle in the laws of States and localities, but rather a decided confusion, arising from the restrictions of courts and the conflicts of jurisdiction in matters of interstate traffic. The tendency in recent years has been away from the taxation of gross earnings, and back to the earlier plan of taxation of property; but instead of basing valuation upon inventory, it has been found more equitable to derive it from stocks and bonds. This plan has the advantages of being approved by the United States courts, of treating the corporations as entities, and of adopting for the valuation of corporations the estimate of the commercial world by adding to the market value of stocks the par value of bonds.

Mr. Frederick N. Judson followed with an able paper, which possessed added interest by reason of the fact that it combined the results of his researches as a student with his practical experience in corporation law. After noting that the Supreme Court has established through decisions the rule that the value of a railroad in the State for taxation means the part within the State of the value of the entire road, and that, as a means of determining this State value, the mileage apportionment rule has been approved, he discussed the theoretical and practical difficulties that inhere in the taxes on gross earnings and on value, and advocated a tax on net earnings, or the establishment of a definite standard of taxable value by the capitalization of the net revenues under the mileage rule. This should be the sole corporation tax, and foreign bondholders as well as stockholders should be exempt from taxation. The evils of a lowered national conscience under the present system more than offset any gain in revenue secured. The discussion brought clearly into view the close relationship between the taxing question and the more fundamental one of corporation control, and likewise the fact, adduced by Professor Seligman, that reform must be sought in a complete divorce of State and local assessments, and that, in the nature of the case, a reform cannot be accomplished piecemeal, but, to be successful, must be comprehensive. In the papers read and the subsequent discussion, the legal element predominated over the professorial, which may in part account for the practical trend of the discussion; 'but it was noticeable that, in general, lawyers and economists were in agreement as to ways and means, and that the most radical suggestion made at all, that quasi-public corporations should be relieved from taxation, on the ground that, inasmuch as the State can control their rates of charge, any tax imposed would be either unjust or absurd, was offered by a practising lawyer of Chicago.

The Thursday evening session was given up to the annual addresses to the two associations. President Ely of the Economic Association presented a scholarly paper upon the subject, "Competition, its Nature, its Permanency, and its Beneficence." He exhibited the sharp contrast in the utterances of popular economic literature on the subject of competition—views so contradictory as to admit apparently of no reconciliation—and urged a more exact definition of terms, which might possibly bring the disputants to an agreement. It must be recognized that the struggle of conflicting interests has certain limits fixed by the social order. The doctrine of evolution, when applied to man, materially modifies our conception of this economic struggle. "Primitive competition includes a narrow circle of association, and, beyond that, slaughter for economic advantage. With social evolution, slaughter gradually recedes into the background and falls below competition into the region of crime," and since the beginning of the present century the elevation of the plane of competition has kept pace with the rapidity of social evolution. Growing association among men has enlarged the competitive group, and its enlargement has been attended by increased generosity, benevolence, altruism. Competition comes increasingly to mean worthy struggle, and one of the tests to be applied to proposed measures of social betterment is whether it strengthens the individual and the group competitively. Competition is to be regarded, then, as a permanent social feature. Combination can be permitted only so long as it does not destroy the effectiveness of this permanent principle. If monopoly ensues, competition must be restored, and when this is not possible, the ends of competition must be secured by a social control. "If these methods of social control in some cases mean public ownership and management of industries, a place must be opened for the competitive principle in the terms of admission to public employment." Two somewhat antagonistic lines of evolution appear in the consideration of this problem; the first, one of the most powerful movements of the century, is that which looks toward real equality of opportunity in economic competition; the other is found in the construction of the economic-juridical institutions of society, such as private property, inheritance of property, and vested interests. The first must not go so far as to undermine the second. "In the mutual adjustments of these two lines of evolution, . . . we have given us one of the weightiest and at the same time most delicate tasks of the twentieth century."

On Friday the two associations were taken by special train to Ann Arbor as the guests of the University of Michigan. The joint session in the morning was devoted to the History and Problems of Colonization, and the uniformly high character of the papers, together with the nature of the problems discussed, made this doubtless the most interesting session of the week. The keynote of the morning's discussion was to be found in the insistence upon the idea that a colonial administrative policy, to be successful, must be based upon thorough study of the natives themselves, and upon the experience of other nations in colonial government, and not upon an exaggerated idea of the importance of the religion, customs, and laws of the home country. This was evident in the paper of Professor Reinsch of the University of Wisconsin, entitled "British and French Experiments with Representative Government in the West Indies." A detailed study of experiments in Martinique compelled the conclusion that France had failed because of that same policy of assimilation which had caused Spain's downfall. France is at present recognizing these earlier mistakes, and coming to appreciate the efficacy of a colonial policy such as England has adopted, which interferes but little with native customs, and intrusts the administration to officials familiar with local conditions. This position was emphasized by Professor Stephens of Cornell University, who followed with a delightful portrayal of British administration in India. Such mistakes as have been made there, he said, have been due to a want of understanding and appreciation of the native peoples. Again, Professor Finley of Princeton University, who presented the results of a personal visit in a paper on "Our Porto Rican Policy," insisted that the relations between the tropics and civilization must be expressed by the residence of a few white men to guide and encourage. His picture of the island politically and economically was most deplorable. The difficulties of securing a revenue can hardly be overestimated, and the island certainly needed, he insisted, the temporary relief afforded by the Dingley tariff. Neither complete independence nor early admission to Statehood is to be thought of. The islanders do not want the first, and are not ready for the second. They should be organized into a Territory. In the discussion that followed, Professor Hull of Cornell University gave the results of a statistical investigation into the revenues and expenditures of Porto Rico as the result of its possession by the United States. The conclusion was plain that, after the expiration of the tariff law, the revenues of the island will not be sufficient for its maintenance, which calls for a speedy and serious consideration of the taxing problem. Professor Hollander, now Treasurer of Porto Rico, was unable to be at the meeting and present his paper upon "The Finances of Porto Rico." His handling of the difficult questions intrusted to him in that island has aroused wide interest and admira-

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tion, and his unavoidable absence was deeply regretted.

Commercial education occupied the Friday afternoon session. Professor James's paper on "The Relation of the Universities to Commercial Education" traced in an admirable manner the progress made in this direction, and advocated a three or four years' undergraduate course in the colleges and universities to meet the need. Professor Keasbey of Bryn Mawr, in a paper on "The Teaching of Economic Geography," presented from a theoretical standpoint the mutual dependence of economics and geography, and gave commercial geography a fundamental place in a scientific course in commercial education. Professor Haskins of New York University presented "The Science of Accounts in Collegiate Commercial Education," according accountancy a high place in secondary, post-graduate, and professional commercial education. The spirited discussion which ensued, led by Professors Dixon of Dartmouth and Scott of Wisconsin, confined itself to the place of commercial education in a college or university course, and gave expression to widely divergent views. It was argued on the one hand that such a course should be supplementary to that of the college, and be placed on the same basis as training for the recognized professions; on the other hand, that it should parallel and in large part supersede the college course, the time not being ripe for a more advanced curriculum. The afternoon's deliberations made clear the increasing need for such training and the growing interest in this form of education on the part of the business community.

The closing session on Saturday morning gave opportunity for the only paper of a theoretical character presented. "The Next Decade in Economic Theory," by Professor Fetter of Leland Stanford Junior University, essayed to forecast from present tendencies and current theories the direction of further development in the abstracter branch of economics. Basing his position upon the marginal-utility theory of value, the writer contended that the cost-of-production theory is discredited, that the labor theory of value must be thrown aside and the traditional division of the factors of production abandoned as illogical, and that our doctrines of rent and interest and our concept of capital must be reëxamined and restated. The discussion showed a disinclination to follow the utility principle so far; in fact, a distinct reaction against this new development in economics was evident in the remarks of some of the participants, and a decided leaning towards Ricardian ideas interpreted in the light of later developments.

The excellent policy adopted by the Association of furthering investigation through committees was again justified in the conclusions presented by the Committee on Uniform Municipal Accounts and Statistics, which reported through its Chairman, Mr. M. N. Baker of the *Engineering News*. American municipal accounting is at present in a most unsatisfactory condition, and questions of public policy relating to municipalities can never be thoroughly studied until uniformity in reports has been secured. The Committee urged the coöperation of the various economic, sanitary, and engineering societies for the accomplishment of this result, to be followed by steps that will lead to the adoption of the scheme by the municipalities themselves. They urged the publication of a yearly comparative summary of municipal statistics, the continuation of the work of this character now conducted by the United States Department of Labor, and the preparation by the present Census Office of an exhibit showing the nature and extent of municipal activities. The Committee was continued.

The most serious criticism that can be passed upon the sessions as a whole is that, because of the number of papers presented, so little time was or could be given to discussion. It is hoped that this difficulty has been removed by the action of the Council, which provided that hereafter there shall be fewer papers on the programme, that they shall be printed in advance and read at the sessions only in abstract, and that the meetings shall be devoted largely to discussion. Prof. Richard T. Ely was re-elected President, and Prof. Charles H. Hull of Cornell University, Secretary.

CAMILLE DESMOULINS.

PARIS, December 19, 1900.

M. G. Lenotre has devoted himself to the study of what he calls "Paris révolutionnaire," or Paris in the Revolutionary period. His new volume, 'Vieilles Maisons, Vieux Papiers,' possesses real interest. The subjects treated in it are very varied. The principal chapters are devoted to Camille Desmoulins and his wife, and to the sister of Robespierre. Camille Desmoulins was born at Guise, a pretty and sleepy old place, situated near the forest of Guise, which belonged to the Princes of Condé. This forest, by the way, which was left by the last Prince of Condé to the Duke d'Aumale together with all the Condé estates, was left by the Duke d'Aumale to the Duke de Chartres during his lifetime and after him to the Duke de Chartres's second son, who has assumed the name of Duke de Guise. The father of Camille Desmoulins was an honorable and modest man, who filled the office of lieutenant-general, civil, criminal, and of police, in the bailiwick of Vermandois. He was poor and had five children. Camille was born on the 2d of March, 1760, and was educated at the Collège Louis le Grand in Paris, where he was a bursar. Since the suppression of the order of the Jesuits, the college has been in the hands of the University. The education was purely classical, and the boys heard more about the heroes of Plutarch than about the kings of France. They lived, so to speak, in Sparta, in Athens, and in Rome.

"Who could fix," writes M. Lenotre, "the degree of responsibility which, in the psychology of the men of the Revolution, is attachable to the inconsiderate admiration of antiquity? Legislators nourished on Livy and Tacitus passed judgment not on Louis XVI., but on Tarquin. What they thought worthy of imitation was the savage virtues of Brutus and Cato; human life could count for little in the eyes of those classicists accustomed to pagan hecatombs. Charlotte Corday herself would invoke the name of Cinna, and when Deputy Javogues, a member of the Convention, walked stark naked in the streets of Feurs, he took himself for an ancient."

Young Desmoulins became one of these Romans, and did not conceal his contempt for Guise and the simple ways of its inhabitants; he would live there no longer, and remained in Paris, where he was enrolled in 1784 on the list of lawyers. From 1784 to 1789 he was almost in distress, having no relations, no protectors; he was reduced to the necessity of copying legal documents for the *procureurs*, a precarious and very ill-paid work.

The Hôtel de Pologne, where he had a small room, was next to the house of a rich bourgeois, M. Duplessis, who had a pretty daughter. Desmoulins noticed her and admired her. Himself very poor and very plain, he could not hope to marry her till the Revolution made a great change in his life. From the first day, he threw himself into the new current; when the States-General were convoked, he went to Guise and succeeded in getting himself named one of the three hundred electors of the bailiwick of Vermandois, but not in being elected a Deputy. He returned to Paris furious against the inhabitants of Guise, "who are at the antipodes of philosophy and patriotism." "One of my comrades [of Louis le Grand]," he writes to his father, "has been more fortunate than I. I mean Robespierre, Deputy from Arras." In Paris, managing to become one of the followers of Mirabeau, he lives in his house at Versailles, dines with all his friends, with his mistress.

In a single day he rose from obscurity to popularity. It was on the day when, finding himself in the Garden of the Palais Royal, he stood on a table and distributed the green leaves of the trees of the garden as cockades to the enthusiastic populace. From his table he announces to a surging multitude the dismissal of Necker, declaims against the Court, and takes from his pocket a pistol, with which he threatens imaginary spies. He does not lose a moment, but writes pamphlets, and among them the 'Discours de la Lanterne aux Parisiens,' in which he attacks the priests, the nobility, everybody. His glory has not made him richer. He humbly asks his father to send him five louis, and complains of his booksellers. His father criticises his son's pamphlets severely, but sends him some money, with which he founds a paper, *Révolutions de France et de Brabant.* In a literary sense, this paper, which immediately became famous, is a model of irony, of wit, of eloquence, of originality. "Its unforgiving irony," M. Lenotre says with truth, "spares nothing; it is destructive and merciless. . . . After Camille, the Terror may come. He has in advance laughed so much at the victims that they will no longer inspire pity."

The terrible pamphleteer succeeded in becoming intimate with the Duplessis family. Duplessis was the son of a workman, but had made a little fortune. His daughter Lucile was very pretty, as is manifest from an engraving in M. Lenotre's book, from a picture by Bailly, which is at the Musée Carnavalet. She was moved by Desmoulins's passion and consented to become his wife. She had a dowry of 100,000 francs, which was quite a fortune at the time. Desmoulins, who had always led a Bohemian life, took a third-story apartment on the Place de l'Odéon, at the corner of the Rue Crébillon. On the day of their marriage Lucile was proud of seeing round her Pétion, the Mayor of Paris; Mercier, author of the 'Tableau de Paris,' and Robespierre. The Duplessis had a little country house at Bourg-la-Reine, near Paris, and the journalist and his wife divider their time between the country and the capital. The year 1791 was a long honeymoon. Camille, who had been such a merci-

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less journalist, was so much softened by the new conditions of his life that he ceased to publish his paper. Since he was in easy circumstances, he considered the Revolution ended. A child was born at the close of 1791, and Desmoulins resolved to reënter the bar; but, when the Republic was proclaimed, Danton asked him to become the Secretary-General of the Ministry of Justice. "When he entered, with Lucile on his arm, the stately hôtel of the Place Vendôme, his unexpected piece of good fortune revived in him the Camille of the old days. He exults. 'Here I am,' he writes to his father, 'living in the palace of the Maupeoux and the Lamoignons.'"

He was led by his new position to excuse the September massacres, ordered by Danton, to vote for the execution of the King, and to take his place among the adversaries of the Girondists. He began to feel repentant, however, when the condemnation of the Girondists was pronounced and they were sent to the guillotine. "It is I," exclaimed he, "who killed them; I shall never forgive myself for it." Camille Desmoulins was to be himself one of the victims of that Revolution of which it has been said that, like Saturn, it devoured its own children. He showed his usual ardor in his attacks on the Terrorists, especially on Robespierre, whom he denounced in his new paper, the *Vieux Cordelier*. Lucile encouraged him in his efforts. He was breakfasting one day with a friend, who told him he was endangering his life. Lucile said, "Let him; let him fulfil his mission; he will save his country." And Camille, taking his wife and his young child in his arms, added philosophically, "Edamus et bibamus, cras enim moriemur." Lucile was alarmed, however; she wrote to Fréron, who was before Toulon, besieged by the French troops: "Come back, Fréron, and quickly. Bring with you all the friends you can find; we need them. . . . I have ceased to laugh, I don't touch my piano any more. Come back, come back!"

On the 20th of March, 1794, Camille received the news of the death of his mother. He was weeping; Lucile, overpowered with fatigue, was sleeping near the cradle of her child. Suddenly the steps of a patrol are heard in the street. Camille opens the window and sees the soldiers. He screams, "They have come to arrest me." His wife wakes up; Camille opens the door himself to the soldiers of the Revolutionary committee. He is arrested and conducted to the prison of the Luxembourg. We have still the letters which he wrote to his wife while there; they are full of passion. In his despair, he writes:

"Live for our child; tell him, when he can understand it, that I would have loved him much. . . . I believe, notwithstanding all, that there is a God. My blood will efface my faults, my human weakness; and what there was of good in me, my virtues, my love of liberty, God will recompense. . . . *I feel my life ebbing away.* I see you still, Lucile; my hands, already tied, embrace you, and my head, separated from my body, still opens on you its dying eyes."

On the 5th of April, 1794, Camille died, amidst the applause of the populace of which he had once been the ideal. His unmerciful enemies did not spare Lucile; she was beheaded a week after him, and showed great courage on the scaffold. Camille's father died soon afterwards of grief at Guise. Duplessis, Lucile's father, survived her not long. Old Madame Duplessis undertook the education of the young Horace. All we know about him is that, in 1817, he left France for Hayti, where he died in 1825, leaving two daughters, named one Camille, the other Lucile. They both married and became widows. "They were," says M. Lenotre, "still alive a few years ago, and both were in a state of poverty. An attempt was made to interest the Government and the Chambers in their fate, but it was fruitless, and we believe that one of them is now dead."

A marble tablet commemorative of Camille Desmoulins and his wife has been placed on the house in the Rue Crébillon, above the Café Voltaire. M. Lenotre, who is very exact and the most diligent student of "old houses," explains at length that this memorial was wrongly placed by the Commission of Paris Inscriptions. It ought really to be placed at the opposite corner of the Place de l'Odéon, on the Rue Crébillon. His chief authority is M. Sardou, who had once received the confidences of M. Lenoir, an old Parisian, who, crossing one day with Sardou the Place de l'Odéon, when Sardou was still a very young man, showed him the windows of the third story of the house which stands at the angle of the Place de l'Odéon and of the Rue Crébillon. "Look," said the old man to Sardou; "there dwelt Camille Desmoulins."

Correspondence.

RECIPROCITY AND THE BRITISH NORTH AMERICAN FISHERIES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A humorous American has declared that it would pay the United States to pension off every blessed New England fisherman with a thousand dollars a year so that the people of America might eat cheap fish. Absurd as the idea seems at first sight, it is not only true, but absolute sound common sense. The deep-sea fisheries of the republic have for years past been a decaying industry. At one time the fishing vessels were manned by native Americans, but to-day the motley crowd that sail in the bankers are chiefly provincials—Nova Scotians, Cape Breton men, Newfoundlanders—Portuguese, Swedes, and Norwegians. The genuine New Englander does not care for this dangerous and disagreeable business; he relegates it to his colonial poor brother and the foreigner. All political economists are agreed that the most obnoxious form of protection is a prohibitory tax on the common food of the people. Cheap sea fish is one of the largest ingredients in the dietary of the working population of Europe, and especially of England; without it they could hardly exist. In America your vast population, your toiling millions in towns, in factories, and on farms, are actually deprived of this great food supply of cheap fish in order that a few hundred Americans and a promiscuous crowd of foreign fishermen may earn high wages, and a ring of fish-dealers gain big profits.

Every one knows that the great deep-sea fisheries of this continent, the home of the cod, herring, halibut, mackerel, and lobster, lie in our northern British waters; why should not we, out of our superfluity from this great harvest of the ocean, supply your great population with cheap fish just as you supply Europe with cheap breadstuffs? Why should so obvious a case of natural demand and supply of necessary food be stopped and completely dammed up by an artificial barrier? In the olden time the argument used for the protection of the American fishermen was national defence, supplying the navy with seamen; to-day the most rabid New England protectionist—even Senator Frye—would not dare to explode this rusty old weapon in the controversy. It is well known that, in your late war with Spain, your naval officers were able to show that no body of men throughout the United States furnished fewer recruits for the American men-of-war than the down-East fishermen.

Lest there should be any doubt about the correctness of my statements, let me give a few facts and figures. In proportion to her population, the deep-sea fisheries of the United States are of very small importance. England, with little more than half your population, besides a large export, consumes fish every year valued at twenty-five millions at the landing, equal to double that amount by retail. Besides this, in a good year, Scotland exported 1,700,000 barrels of herring, worth another twelve millions. Now, at the highest estimate, the deep-sea fishery of the republic outside of oysters does not exceed ten to twelve millions; in the same proportion as British consumption, it should be fifty millions. The main cause of this difference is the scarcity and dearness of sea fish. In England three herrings can be bought for five cents; every one knows that a single herring cannot be purchased in the States for the price of three in Europe. All common fish except oysters are notoriously dear with you—two and three times the price for which they can be obtained in England or Canada. Let free trade in fish be once established, and this anomalous state of affairs would disappear in a short time. Newfoundland alone, out of its inexhaustible fisheries, could supply the States with seven or eight million dollars' worth of cod, herring, lobsters, and salmon.

All who have studied the question of free trade between the two countries are aware that America will reap the larger benefit out of the arrangement. You have long been clamoring for reciprocity with South America, but, as has been recently shown, Pennsylvania alone does more business with the British colonies than the whole American trade with the Southern republics. I notice that the return of Mr. Bond (of the Blaine Bond Treaty) with an overwhelming majority in Newfoundland, and the prospect of a reciprocity treaty with the colony, has already caused a flutter in Gloucester, and the cry has gone forth that their great national industry is about to be destroyed. No one will be deceived by such palpable misrepresentation. Experience under the former reciprocity treaty shows that no such dire result will ensue; they lived and prospered then, as they will still continue to exist under a new arrangement for free trade. At the present time American fishing-vesels frequenting Newfoundland waters bear a heavy burden—over $6,000 was collected from the few schooners visiting our shore this year for licenses alone. Every small vessel of 80 or 90 tons pays in light dues, licenses, bait, etc., at least $300; under reciprocity, the bulk of this charge would be taken off, and they would enjoy besides

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the inestimable privilege of fishing in the colonial grounds from which they are now excluded.

A reciprocity treaty between the two countries, to be thoroughly beneficial to both, should be for a fixed period of not less than ten or twelve years. Its full advantages will not come at once. It takes time to bring trade into new channels. The barriers of protection are so strong, so firmly rooted in America, that it will be hard to break them down; only time and the obvious benefits of mutual free intercourse between the neighboring friendly countries will eventually bring about the desired change.

D. W. PROWSE.

ST. JOHNS, NEWFOUNDLAND, December 23, 1900.

WARFARE IN SOUTH AFRICA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Farm-burning, not having proved a sedative in the case of such people as the Boers, has apparently been discontinued, and the clamor for the military murder of Boers taken in arms, raised by the extreme Jingoes in England, has died away. But Mr. Dudgeon must not think that facts can be erased from the record.

I cited a proclamation of Lord Roberts condemning to be burned a number of farms, not for "concealing ammunition or used as defences wherefrom to fire," but because they were in the neighborhood of railways which had been raided by the enemy, and it was presumed, surely with palpable injustice, that the occupants had connived at the raids.

Here is another proclamation:

NOTICE.

The town of Ventersburg has been cleared of supplies and partially burnt, and the farms in the vicinity destroyed, on account of the frequent attacks on the railway line in the neighborhood. The Boer women and children who are left behind should apply to the Boer commandants for food, who will supply them unless they wish to see them starve. No supplies will be sent from the railway to the town.

[Sgd.] BRUCE HAMILTON,
Major-General.

November 1, 1900.

An Englishman thoroughly well informed and attached to British connections, writing from the Cape, says of the Orange Free State:

"That community two years ago was a model state, liberal, free from corruption, spending large sums on education, in every way an example. It is now a desert; some of the men killed, some in military prisons, the rest waging a desperate and (to our eyes) a hopeless war against overwhelming forces. The homesteads on a large scale have been harried and burned, the women turned out to shift for themselves, herded together in camps or deported with their children."

Are Americans disposed to make themselves by their approbation moral accomplices in this work of ruin? EQUITY.

Notes.

Persons of Devonshire extraction or connections now in the British Colonies or in the United States are requested to forward to the President-elect of the Devonshire Association for 1901 any particulars they can give of the emigration of their family and its subsequent history, with names and addresses of its living members. All such persons will be made welcome to membership in the Association at the three-days meeting in Exeter next August. The President is Sir Roper Lethbridge, and his address, The Manor House, Exbourne, R. S. O., Devon, Eng.

The Rowfant Club, Cleveland, intends to reprint in a limited edition the Boston *Dial* of 1840-44, giving an exact facsimile of the sixteen numbers even to errata sheets, and a supplementary number descriptive of the publication, with names of the contributors and an index. The first number will appear in March.

The *Tägliche Rundschau* of Berlin reports that, through the intervention of Prof. Ernst Elster, Dr. Hans Meyer, chief of the Bibliographical Institute of Leipzig, secured for that library, from the estate of Heinrich Heine, a large mass of valuable literary remains, fully 1,500 pages, in the handwriting of the poet himself. In these papers are found the originals of a number of Heine's leading works. Especially valuable, however, as supplying new data and details for the poet's career, is a series of more than 1,000 lettters, addressed to him by prominent contemporaries, such as Laube, Varnhagen, Rahel, Robert Schumann, Meyerbeer, Hiller, Lewald, Count Auersperg, and the members of his own family. In a new critical edition now in preparation of the works of Heine, the editor, Professor Elster, proposes to make good use of these finds.

The Hinrichs'sche Buchhandlung, Leipzig, purposes carrying forward the enterprise of the Russell 'Collective German Publishers' Catalogue' (two series, cloth-bound, in twenty-eight volumes), containing the individual catalogues of the German publishers alphabetically arranged by cities, together with those of firms outside of Germany connected with the German trade. This enterprise involved a loss of about $75,000. Starting with the year 1893, where Russell's collection stops, the above firm will proceed in five-year periods, if the trade and libraries of the world are disposed to support it. For the present, absolute subscriptions are not requested, but only an expression of the likelihood of subscribing. The price will be very moderate, 30 pfennigs per sheet of sixteen pages, of a size probably somewhat larger than Russell's. The competence of the Leipzig firm is unquestionable. The American agents are Lemcke & Buechner, No. 812 Broadway.

Henry Holt & Co. are soon to publish in ornamental form 'Familiar Quotations from the Divine Comedy of Dante Alighieri,' edited by R. J. Cross, with English translations, notes, and the parallel Italian text; 'Hypnotism and Suggestion in Therapeutics,' by Dr. R. Osgood Mason; and 'Puritan and Anglican,' by Edward Dowden.

'The North Americans of Yesterday,' by Frederick Dillenbaugh, will shortly be issued by G. P. Putnam's Sons.

E. P. Dutton & Co. announce for speedy publication a Life of Lord Monboddo, intimating that thereby hangs a tale.

The Marchesa Burlamacchi's 'Luca della Robbia,' in "Great Masters in Painting and Sculpture" (London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan), has much less of either biography or criticism than other volumes of the series. It is rather in the nature of a *catalogue raisonné* of the known and attributed works of the master. The lack of biography is to be accounted for by the lack of known facts about the life of Della Robbia, while the lack of general criticism is partly supplied by a supplementary chapter on "Luca's Work and Position in Italian Art," by the editor of the series, G. C. Williamson. To most people the main interest of the book will be found in the forty-one illustrations. Luca's work, especially in the majolicas, "comes well" in half-tone reproduction, and these plates convey much of the charm of the originals.

Sadakichi Hartmann's 'Shakespeare in Art' (Boston: L. C. Page & Co.) is not a book to be taken seriously, although the author says he has been all his life "somewhat of an art critic, and thoroughly acquainted with the subject." He claims for it "nothing but the merits of compilation," but its merits even as compilation are of the slenderest, and it is only unintentionally that it is amusing. It is so when Ford Madox Brown is called "the Pre-raphaelite painter whom Ruskin has lauded to the skies"—Brown, whom Ruskin systematically ignored!—and when the reader is somewhat unnecessarily assured that "Daniel Huntington, in his 'Henry VIII. and *Catherine Parr*,'" "had no idea of illustrating Shakspere." Even the illustrations are uninteresting; though this may be because so few good artists have illustrated Shakspere, or because the few good things are copyrighted.

'A Captive of War,' by Solon Hyde, hospital steward of the Seventeenth Ohio Volunteer Infantry (McClure, Phillips & Co.), seems a belated record of those melancholy experiences in Confederate prisons, during the civil war, which for many years were so numerous and so calculated to excite bitterness in those who had similarly suffered, and anger in those who were accused of complicity in the systematic abuse of Union captives. Mr. Hyde was taken prisoner during the battle of Chickamauga in September, 1863, and in the succeeding eighteen months saw the inside of prisons at Richmond, Danville, Andersonville, and Salisbury. His testimony concerning the brutality of their administration is that of former stories; but on account of his quasi-medical office he often obtained relief from the miseries which befell the private soldier, and under these easier circumstances saw a good deal of the more attractive side of Southern character. He had a rather amusing experience in the early part of 1865, when he was being escorted from Andersonville to some place less exposed to the visitations of the Northern troops. Sherman was on the warpath in South Carolina, and prison-keepers had little rest for their souls in the security of their captive charges. At each circuit away from the Union march this wandering prison-guard was menaced anew by Sherman, and at last was fain to let the prisoners shift for themselves within the Union lines.

We are indebted to the Norwegian Minister of Public Instruction for a copy of an official work on Norway, ordered two years ago by the Storthing to be prepared in connection with the Paris Exhibition, and published simultaneously in French and in English. It is a beautiful volume in royal octavo ('Norway,' London: Sampson Low, Marston

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& Co.), in which there is a concise and orderly description of the country, beginning with its geographical situation, topography, geology, climate, etc., and tracing the history of the people, their Constitution (given in full at the end), institutions, army and navy, industries, commerce, communication, language, literature, and art. Many of these sections, in addition to bibliographies, are very beautifully and somewhat freely illustrated, and the compilation does infinite credit to the intelligence and taste of the Government office in charge of its production. We gladly place it, as suggested, on our shelves for reference, and give notice that it is procurable through the trade (in England, for six shillings).

Of a different order, but still notable, is a companion work, in small quarto, 'International Exposition, Paris, 1900; Official Catalogue [of the] Exhibition of the German Empire' (Berlin: J. R. Stargardt). It is in English, but printed in the German character, with rubricated running-titles, head and tail-pieces, and other colored ornamentation, both novel and effective. What corresponds most nearly to the Norwegian book is a preface, by Ernst von Halle, on the German Empire and its Inhabitants at the End of the Nineteenth Century, in fifty-eight pages. The catalogue proper begins with the German House, and first of all with its collection of Frederick the Great. Statistics accompany all the descriptive matter preceding each list of exhibitors, and lend a permanent value to this presentation. There is an index to the exhibitors.

By the publication of 'Die Apokryphen und Pseudepigraphen des Alten Testament,' the editor, Professor Kautzsch of Halle, and his colaborers, together with the publisher, Mohr of Tübingen and Leipzig, have made accessible to the students of history, literature, and theology a mass of important material hitherto comparatively unknown to all except specialists. Even few of these could have complete control of the field, as so many of the originals occur in different Oriental languages. This collection of books contains not only the official Apocrypha of the Old Testament found in the Greek and Alexandrian canon (though not in the Palestinian or Hebrew), as also in some modern versions, notably Luther's, but also the whole mass of Apocalypses and Pseudepigrapha that flourished so prolifically in the inter-Testament period among the Jews. For the first time we have in translations, together with introductions and valuable notes, a literature formerly regarded merely in the light of curiosities, but now as sources of historical and literary study of prime value. This version, together with its literary additions, is sold in two volumes at 25 marks; but also the text itself has been issued, together with Weizsäcker's classical version of the New Testament now in the ninth edition, and the Kautzsch version of the Old Testament, originally issued in 1894, in a massive volume of 1534 quarto pages, at 12 marks. Within the covers of one book, therefore, is thus comprised a scholarly and modern translation of the entire body of Jewish religious literature from its beginning to the close of the New Testament period. It is the only work of the kind in existence.

The United States Department of Agriculture publishes in one of its series a very partisan and, it may be added, untrustworthy account of the sheep and wool industry of this country, prepared by J. R. Dodge, at one time in charge of the statistical division of the Department, and now described as a special agent. His is all that a public document should not be. Its high praises of the tariff and its framers are out of place. Even the Department offers a half-apology for printing the essay and giving it official endorsement.

A predominant note of the Consular Reports for December is the threatened industrial crisis in Europe. The wave of prosperity, which has steadily risen since 1895, has taken a turn and begun to recede. There are ominous indications in France, Scotland, Austria-Hungary, and Germany especially, where at the same time that continued overproduction has made stoppages of factories the order of the day, fuel and provisions have greatly advanced in price. This increase in the cost of food gives peculiar interest to the present controversy as to the working of the law passed four years ago, through Agrarian influence, forbidding "dealing in futures in grain and mill products or stocks of mining and manufacturing establishments on the exchange." The supporters of the measure claim "that it has given Germany an autonomous home market, dominated by their own grades and qualities of grain and controlled by German conditions of supply and demand, independent of the markets at Odessa, Antwerp, Liverpool, or Chicago; and that it has stimulated and elevated the morals of trade." On the other hand, "the commercial and industrial classes of business men in this part of Germany," writes Consul-General Mason of Berlin, "including also many of the more intelligent agriculturists, seem convinced that the whole effect of the law has been abortive, and not only of no practical advantage, but a positive injury to the interests of German agriculture"—a conviction in which the Government seems to share. The readiness of Japan to follow Western methods receives a new illustration in the recent establishment of a Museum of Commerce at Bangkok, in which it is proposed to display a sample of every commercial product of Japan.

It is just thirty years since Sir Robert Hart suggested the use of the medical staff of the Imperial Maritime Customs in China for the half-yearly Medical Reports which have appeared regularly ever since, even while the promoter himself was besieged in Pekin. We have more than once called attention to the incidental sociological interest and value of these reports, and these qualities are manifested anew in the 59th issue (II., Special Series No. 2) for March 31, 1900, published at Shanghai. Thus, Dr. W. H. Parks says "the fashionable disease of Soochow is gastralgia," "mostly confined to ladies of the upper classes," on account of their indolent and aimless lives, with a fit of anger as a frequent inciting cause. Great is the outcry and pother and the demand on the servants for relief. In these Dr. Parks says he has sometimes thought he could detect symptoms of pride at "serving a mistress who could get up such a disease and cause such a stir in a little world." The disease is largely responsible for opium-smoking among women, who contract the habit after the attack has been alleviated. Opium Dr. Osman F. Hall of Chungking reckons among "the five great curses of the women of China," along with slavery, tuberculosis, rickets, and bound feet; and he illustrates all these in a portrait group of three women. Dr. H. M. McCandliss, of Hoihow and Kiungchow, tells of an old woman, ill with plague, whose house was burnt above her head, together with the coffin already provided for her: "She did not grieve over the burns . . . .; but, oh! that coffin which was burned, and where could she get another?"

Art collectors and custodians of museums will be greatly interested in a new weekly, *Monatsberichte über Kunstwissenschaft und Kunsthandel*, of which R. Freiherr von Seydlitz is editor-in-chief, and Hugo Helbing of Munich the publisher. Each number contains brief articles by leading European art critics, on an average five full-page heliogravures or autotypes, a number of illustrations, and very full bibliographies and reports on art collections, schools, exhibitions, etc. There is, besides, a supplement, the 'Folia Helbingiana,' or monthly illustrated catalogue of rare publications and objects of art of every description offered for sale by the firm of Hugo Helbing.

A late issue of the *Archäologischer Anzeiger*, No. 3, 1900, presents an interesting partial programme of the work of the German Archæological Institutes at Rome and Athens for the current year. The public meetings of these institutes began, as usual, with the observance of the birthday of Winckelmann on December 7. Professor Petersen began early in December to lecture in Rome on the most important monuments and museum treasures in and about the city. Professor Hülsen of Rome gives two courses—one on the topography of the ancient city, and another on Latin inscriptions. In Athens, Professor Dörpfeld is lecturing on the buildings and topography of the city, of Piræus and of Eleusis. After the end of this course, in April, occurs his "Studienreise" to the Peloponnese, Ithaca, and Delphi, to be followed in May by another to the islands of the Ægean Sea and to Troy.

The excellent method by which Europeans show their respect and love for their scholars has again been exemplified in the case of August Mau, the well-known authority on Pompeii, whose latest book on that subject was not long ago published in an English translation. His sixtieth birthday was celebrated by his friends in Rome on the 15th of October. One of the features was a gift of 5,600 francs, to which scholars and friends in all parts of Europe and America contributed. This amount was given outright, with only the suggestion that it might be used for the production of copies of Pompeian wall-paintings.

The recent Congress of Archæologists held in Kiev decided to petition the Government to reorganize thoroughly the whole archive system in Russia, and to establish a series of central archives under the control of the Ministry of Education. For the first year, 1901, the sum of 14,000 rubles has been asked, and two central archives are to be established, one at Kiev and the other at Wilna.

The Countess of Linden, whose work on the causes of coloration in animals is well known, and who is assistant professor in the Zoölogical Institute of the University of Bonn, has just been awarded the prize (1,200 francs) of "Gama Machado," and thus becomes Lauréate de l'Institut de France

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(Paris). The Countess, who is German, and has never been in France, wrote her work in French, her subject being the colors of the wings of butterflies; her competitors were all men, and one of them, a professor at Marseilles, was already laureate. We may also mention here that Miss Lily Martin has received an appointment as assistant in the laboratory at Clark University.

—The name of Father Marquette has just gone the round of the newspapers, owing to the alleged discovery at Frankfort, Mich., of his grave, with remains which seem to include a rosary and cross. Through the courtesy of Mr. Reuben G. Thwaites, we bring to public notice another revelation concerning the celebrated missionary and explorer—a man whose heroism was only less remarkable than his goodness of heart. A fuller statement of the facts in question will be found among the notes to vol. lxxi. of the 'Jesuit Relations,' an instalment of that great work which is still forthcoming. Until recently it was believed that no portrait of Marquette had been preserved. The faces of Le Jeune, Jogues, and Gabriel Lalemant are known from contemporary engravings, while Brébeuf and several other martyrs stand out plainly in the plate delineating the tortures which is given by Creuxius in his 'Historia Canadensis' (Cramoisy, 1664). Marquette, however, was not made the subject of an engraving or woodcut, and accordingly he does not appear in the gallery of oil portraits executed in recent years by Mr. D. G. M'Nab, from seventeenth-century data. Jacques Viger, the first Mayor of Montreal, made extensive investigations about Marquette, but apparently found no clue to a portrait, and in 1846 Father Félix Martin learned that the Marquette family at Laon could give no information whatever regarding one. It remained for Mr. M'Nab to stumble across something which may prove to be an authentic likeness.

—Four winters ago, while walking along Little St. James Street, in Montreal, "I overtook," he says, "two French boys drawing a hand-cart loaded with rubbish and scraps of broken boards, on top of which was thrown an old panel, the shape of which attracted my attention. Picking it up, I inquired as to where they had found it. 'Oh, all of this wood is from an old house.'" They would tell him nothing further, but sold the panel for a little silver. Mr. M'Nab neglected his purchase till the autumn of 1899, when he began removing the dirt with which the picture was encrusted. He found at the bottom of much varnish an excellent portrait, though somewhat cracked. "The face," he says, "is a wonderful fine example of modelling and coloring, and could be mistaken for a work of Rembrandt, were it not for the signature, 'R. Roos, 1669,' above which are two lines which I take to be as explanatory of the model; though cracks and dirt have defaced most of the words, save 'Marquette de la Confrérie de Jésus,' which is quite legible. On the back of the panel . . . there has been carved 'Pere Marquette,' strong and deep, but this carving evidently is not by a contemporary." Father Arthur Jones, the archivist of St. Mary's College, Montreal, is disposed to accept the portrait, and he has been in correspondence with Father Hamy of Boulogne-sur-Mer, the best living authority on whatever relates to Marquette. Father Hamy, having seen a photoprint and considered the evidence, writes: "I congratulate you on having found the likeness. You will now be glad to hear that there is every likelihood of its proving authentic." On the strength of these opinions, Mr. Thwaites will give a half-tone engraving of the panel in the last volume of his series. He concludes: "Every admirer of one of the most lovable characters in the history of American explorations will hope that it will eventually be found that the noble physiognomy here depicted was that of the saintly Marquette."

—The announcement by the Delegates of the Clarendon Press of a new photographic facsimile of Shakspere's First Folio (1623) is welcome news indeed, for the Staunton facsimile, a reproduction wonderfully successful for its time (it was published in the years 1864 and 1865), is now so expensive that good copies command prices in the neighborhood of fifty dollars, and are difficult to obtain even at that figure. This, the best of the facsimiles, is practically, therefore, beyond the reach of the private student. The so-called Halliwell-Phillipps facsimile (1876) is unsatisfactory on account of its many imperfections, due to the reduced size of the text, to say nothing of the painful effect which the reading of it has upon the eyesight. The Booth typographical facsimile, though marvellously correct for a representation in single types, lacks the interest which a photographic reproduction naturally has. Other facsimiles that have been made from time to time are quite untrustworthy. A legible, faithful, and generally accessible *ipsissima-litera* facsimile of the First Folio is therefore badly needed, and the Clarendon Press, in undertaking to supply this want, is adding another to the long list of indebtednesses which English scholarship owes to Oxford. Mr. Sidney Lee—and there could not be a more competent editor for the task—is to have the work in charge. The Press Delegates promise the book for the autumn of this year. They will reproduce the Chatsworth copy belonging to the Duke of Devonshire, which has been deposited in the Bodleian Library for the purpose. It is to be hoped that, besides the bibliographical introduction by Mr. Lee, they will add to the book a collation of the facsimile with the original, showing the various trivial discrepancies between the two which will inevitably arise through imperfections in photographic plates. Such notes will add greatly to the value of their work. Mr. Lee asks that those who are fortunate enough to own copies of the First Folio communicate with him (in care of the Clarendon Press, Oxford), so that he may obtain full bibliographical details for his introduction. He ought thus to be able to give a reasonably complete table of the variations which are to be found in the several copies of the 1623 Folio.

—The *Atlantic* for January has a melancholy article by Elizabeth Bisland on "The Time-Spirit of the Twentieth Century." It contrasts the buoyancy, hope, and enthusiasm of a hundred years since with the cold-blooded pessimism or materialism of to-day, and inquires what the future can have in store for us. "Will the wage-earners shear the bourgeoisie, as we shore the nobles a century ago? Or will Liberty sell herself to authority, for protection from the dry hopelessness of socialism or the turmoil of anarchy? Or will the new generation evolve some thought undreamed of, some new and happier guess at the great central truth which for ever allures and for ever eludes our grasp?" *Quien sabe?* Science has no answers to these questions as yet. Reflective readers who seek relief in another train of thought may turn to an optimistic economical article by Charles A. Conant, on "The Growth of Public Expenditures." Mr. Conant thinks that recent history "illustrates the benefits which may come to the community from a well-directed use of a part of its new wealth in the extension of state functions." A hundred years ago there was no wealth to spare; now, with the multiplication of man's power through steam and electricity, there is a vast surplus fund, constantly growing, likely to be increased hereafter through the resources of chemistry; and this fund can therefore be applied with safety to sanitation, education, and local public works. Consequently, we need not be depressed if we see our taxes constantly growing; we can afford it. Unfortunately for the argument, most of the surplus does not go for sanitation, or water-works, or good roads, but for pure waste in war. What we need to consider is, not the great surplus which is at our disposal for purposes of taxation, but how it is spent, especially as thousands of millions of it were mortgaged by generations now dead for wars long since waged. But let no one call us a pessimistic generation so long as we produce economists who undertake the task of making us happy over our taxes, and the splendid opportunity there is for an extension of "state functions." R. Van Bergen contributes a paper on "The Empress Dowager," which throws a reflected light on the Chinese question. In the Middle Kingdom "no law, however sacred it may be, is considered inviolable." Jurists will be interested in the account given of the process by which Tsai-tien was adopted as heir of Hsien Fêng, by the latter's "posthumous act."

—Another cheerful economist is Mr. Carroll D. Wright, the Commissioner of Labor, who contributes to the *Century* an article on "What the Government Costs." He shows, among other things, that while population since 1791 has increased from about 4,000,000 to about 76,000,000, expenditure per capita has increased only from 49 cents to $6.39, while wealth has increased "fast enough to warrant any augmentation in expenditures." Surely this overlooks the fact that part of the expenditure is caused by a debt of $1,000,000,000, which represents mainly absolute destruction of property. Mr. Wright lays down, as the foundation of what he has to say, the proposition that because a private person with an increasing income generally increases his expenditures in proportion to it, a Government is warranted in doing the same. But if the Government has a large debt and does this, the debt will obviously never be paid off at all. Besides this, private business is mainly the business of production; Government expenditures, except in the case of public works, produce little or nothing, but are taxes taken out of production, and therefore a constant burden. The fact is, that all our buoyant, happy economists are laboring to prove what nobody disputes—that we are a rich people. What they say throws no light on the real ques-

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tions which confront the country: Shall we pay off our debt? Shall we rob Peter to pay Paul $140,000,000 a year for pensions? Is it prudent to keep a continuous war going at the rate of $100,000,000 a year? What have economists to say about militarism? An economist who passes all these questions smiling by and spends his time blowing the trumpet for more taxes, is a curious product of this curious age. Jacob A. Riis has an entertaining illustrated article on "Hamlet's Castle," and Cecil E. Payen contributes an account of the siege of the legations ("Besieged in Peking"), with pictures from photographs by the author. This, like everything else of the sort, has been anticipated by the daily press, but it contains one or two lifelike touches. The following is given as a specimen of Chinese cruelty, but it also illustrates something else, apparently not perceived at all by the writer. One of the coolies within the besieged precincts beats his wife and baby unmercifully. To make an example of him, the man is placed in front of the bell-tower, with a board round his neck bearing the inscription "Wife-Beater." The result is that the punishment falls upon his wife and mother, who go about crying and begging that his family may not be disgraced in this way, while the culprit sits in the pillory with a "forced grin" on his face. He does not know for what he is punished, as every man in China has the right to beat his wife, and "wife-beater" is no term of opprobrium at all. "Running the Cañons of the Rio Grande," by Robert T. Hill of the United States Geological Survey (with illustrations chiefly by Thomas Moran, from photographs), should not be overlooked.

—*Scribner's* has an article by Thomas F. Millard called "A Comparison of the Armies in China." He confirms the accounts given by other writers of the superiority of the Japanese troops. In the beginning it was discovered that the War Office at Tokio possessed "the only complete and correct military maps of the theatre of war." As a result, the allied commanders had to go constantly to the Japanese intelligence staff for instruction and advice. Again, on the march to Pekin, "their field telegraph alone prevented the allied army from losing communication with its base." The other attempts at this service were failures. Further, the work of the Japanese field medical corps was a revelation, and comparable only with the British-Indian field service. During engagements the Japanese wounded "received much prompter attention than those of other nationalities," and, in a sweltering climate, ice was successfully carried all the way to the capital. It is, however, in their commissariat and army transport that the Japanese really bear away the palm. "There can be no doubt that, in the operations in China, the Japanese forces have moved with greater readiness and rapidity, with less fatigue to the troops, have been better supplied, and have, consequently, invariably entered engagements in better physical condition, and with a larger percentage of battalions present for duty, than any of their allies." This superiority in transport hinges on the vital principle of marching "light." The Japanese soldier (and the same thing is said to be true of his British-Indian confrère) carries nothing on the march except his rifle, ammunition, and water-bottle, and all his supplies are packed in such a way as to make transportation easy. The American soldier, who is at the other extreme, marches under an enormous load. After the allied forces entered Pekin, one-third of Gen. Chaffee's total force is said to have been in hospital, against 5 per cent. of the Japanese. Mr. Brownell's article on Auguste Rodin will interest many readers. It is accompanied by numerous illustrations from photographs of sculptures by Rodin—among them, one of the extraordinary Balzac of which every one has heard. Mr. Brownell may be regarded as an authorized "interpreter" of Rodin to the American public, and what he says is persuasive, though whether all the illustrations reinforce what he says may be a question. We make out that, as a theorist about his art, Rodin is occasionally guilty of extravagance, not to say affectation; curiously enough, the rabble see this sometimes in his sculpture.

—*Harper's* opens with the first instalment of Woodrow Wilson's "Colonies and Nation"—a "Short History of the People of the United States," copiously illustrated by well-known draughtsmen, and reinforced by reproductions of autograph signatures, maps, portraits, documents, relics, etc. Otherwise, poetry and fiction make up most of the number. Mr. Poultney Bigelow contributes an article called "My Japan," giving an account of a recent second visit to that country after an interval of twenty-odd years. He finds that the Japanese have changed their costume, but not their nature. They are still charming, still feudal, still non-European, so far as art, music, and the drama go, still thought (*i. e.*, the mercantile class as compared with the corresponding class in China) by the English to be "unreliable in business matters." This is accounted for, according to Mr. Bigelow, by the fact that, "in Japan, trade is left to those whose sordid qualities place them out of sympathy with the great bulk of the natives." Japanese female morals are defended, and we are told that in reality society is as decent in Japan as in England or the United States. The ladies of Japan, it seems, enjoy more freedom than any others in the East because they are more to be trusted. Kotaka (Mr. Bigelow's host) allows his guest to escort Mrs. Kotaka to a musical matinée in Uyeno Park, much as it might be to Carnegie Hall or Sanders Theatre, Cambridge, Mass. Mr. Howells puts Mr. Curtis's old "Easy Chair" in repair, and makes it talk with him on the subject of manners. We have not bad manners, so much as "no manners"; but "if we ever take thought of behavior, we shall have the best manners in the world, probably." This is what was said in Chicago of culture, and is believed by many to be true of the art of government, and other branches. But, as the Chair says, "we must not wait too long." Mr. Howells's pleasant irony leaves the matter intentionally where he found it. If we might venture a suggestion of our own, it would be that the decline in manners is directly due to the tariff. The tariff, as it has risen, has produced a privileged class of *nouveaux riches*. Now privileged classes, in countries managed by Teuton or Anglo-Saxon, always have haughty, arrogant, domineering manners; and the "lower classes" (this being a country in which socially the principle of equality is immensely valuable to them) ape the "hustle and shove" of the newly enriched. That is the way in which they "get even." The constant desire to show how rich and powerful you are, on one side, and to "get even" on the other, is fatal to polite breeding. The Bosses, and apostles of Protection typify the manners of privilege; the noisy "travelling man," the other side. Next to Protection, as a cause of decadence in manners, might be put, of course, "Patriotism." All good manners are quiet; but no one can be a real patriot without being noisy. There is room in Mr. Howells's philosophy of the subject for these thoughts also.

LANG'S CHARLES EDWARD.

Prince Charles Edward. By Andrew Lang. London: Goupil & Co.; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1900.

It is doubtless the confession of a weakness to praise the mechanical features of a book before noticing its contents, but the print and illustrations of Mr. Lang's book on the Pretender are so conspicuously splendid that they deserve prominent mention. The volume belongs to a series which already contains lives of Mary Stuart, Queen Elizabeth, Charles I., Oliver Cromwell, and Queen Victoria. We may infer that the artistic motive was the strongest in the minds of Goupil & Co., because they are distinctively "art publishers" and do not deal with purely historical literature. However, they had the good judgment to secure students of note for their biographers, and the result is sound learning embellished by faithful and sumptuous illustration. In one unavoidable respect the volume on Charles Edward is inferior to that on Charles I., not because the reproductions are less good, but because the later Stuarts had no Vandyck for court painter. Largillière, Gennari, Blanchet, and the other painters represented here by full-page photogravures are not eminent, though some of their portraits are skilful and pleasing. On the other hand, we must exempt from any possible breath of disparagement Hogarth's portrait of Lord Lovat counting the clans. In type it is even more unpleasant than Sargent's "Asher Wertheimer," but it is equally enthralling, and it remains the greatest legacy of the Forty-five to art.

Passing to the text, we must also make a general statement before we come to detail. Mr. Lang writes the best life of Charles Edward which has appeared, and the most coherent account of the last Jacobite rising, considered not merely in its relations to the Pretender, but in its bearing upon the clans and the political circumstances of the time. An accomplished man of letters like Mr. Lang, who has been tested in many fields, can present anything attractively, even though his information be somewhat scant. But Mr. Lang knows the Forty-five even better, perhaps, than he does his Homer, and he secures his decisive effect by weaving minute and intricate data into a smooth and well-modelled work. Every Scottish lad grows up in an atmosphere of hero-worship for the Highlanders who charged at Prestonpans, at Falkirk, and at Culloden. The children of Inverness still pay their compliments to the "spitting-stone" whence Cumberland watched "the whip of the whirlwind," as Camerons, Stewarts, Mackintoshes, Frazers, and MacLeans plunged forward to die for a vanquished

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cause. Mr. Lang, who was once an Edinburgh schoolboy, retains the generous admirations of his youth. It is not unknown that he wears a miniature of Charles Edward for his scarf-pin, and calls the Forty-five the most gallant enterprise of the eighteenth century. But his enthusiasm has been duly chastened by historical research, and he describes the pitiable side of Charles Edward's character with the fulness which the truth requires.

When Dr. Johnson visited Flora Macdonald at Kingsburgh, and was given the bed in which Charles Edward had slept twenty-seven years previously, he pencilled upon a slip of paper, "Quantum cedat virtutibus aurum." Mr. Boswell did not understand the meaning of these words when his immortal work was first printed, but, before a second edition appeared, an "ingenious friend" suggested that they might have some connection with the £30,000 reward. Here we get to the true romance of the Forty-five. Charles Edward was indeed brave when, after fretting for years over the delays of the French Government, he said that he would go to the Highlands and raise the clans alone. He was sober and even melancholy during his brief hour of triumph. He was constant and cheerful when chased through the heather by Cumberland's soldiers and by Lord Macaulay's great grandfather, the Rev. Aulay Macaulay, Minister of Harris. Yet his is not the great glory of the forlorn hope. That belongs to chiefs like Lochiel and Cluny Macpherson; to vassals like the boatmen who rowed the Prince across Loch Nevis, and the eight honest men who dwelt in the cave of Coiraghoth; to women like Lady Margaret Macdonald and the more celebrated Flora. For five months and three days Charles Edward wandered through the Highlands, a fugitive whose captor would have received the largest reward ever offered in Great Britain for such a service to the crown. None of his own betrayed him, or could have been induced to betray him. "Quantum cedat virtutibus aurum."

Mr. Lang's interest in Charles Edward springs from a sense of the loyalty which he inspired. "I am unable to find in Prince Charles the splendid figure that bewitches our fancy in our childhood." The Prince is honored not because he loved much, but because he was much loved. Mr. Lang reveres the emotion which is still felt when "the band plays 'Will ye no come back again?' in assemblies of the Kirk at Holyrood." The volume contains passages which may almost seem to be marked by antiquarian detail, but beneath is this underlying motive: "He failed utterly, failed before God and man and his own soul, but, if he failed greatly, he has greatly endeavored. Charles is loved for his forlorn hope, for his desperate resolve, for the reckless daring, the winning charm that once were his; for bright hair, and brown eyes; above all, as the centre and inspirer of old chivalrous loyalty, as one who would have brought back a lost age, an impossible realm of dreams."

Mr. Lang's principal sources of information (apart from what has been printed) are the documents contained in the Stuart Papers at Windsor. On Cardinal York's death the archives of James III. and his sons passed through some strange experiences, but were finally made over to the Prince Regent. Since then they have remained at Windsor, with the exception of some letters relating to Charles Edward, Mme. d'Albany, and Alfieri which are now in the British Museum. No editor has yet been found who would undertake the work of publishing these Papers, though as early as the date of their purchase Lockhart was mentioned for the task. The only progress which has been made towards rendering them available is represented by a single volume edited by Dr. Glover, and containing manuscripts of the years 1717-1730. More than one historian has had access to the Stuart Papers, but Mr. Lang uses them more freely than his predecessors have done. Among the results of his fresh research is the establishment of several new facts in the life of Charles Edward between his return to France after Culloden and the death of James III. It is an obscure period in his career, and one which is not fully cleared up even yet. As might be expected, Mr. Lang supplements and corrects Mr. Ewald's 'Life and Times of Prince Charles Stuart' (London, 1883) at many points. In fact, he is always glad to display Mr. Ewald's shortcomings—*e. g.*, his failure to use the unpublished part of the Stuart Papers, his statement (p. 9) that a certain published letter had not been published, and (pp. 233-234) his confusion between Miss Walkinshaw and Mme. de Talmond on the strength of a misunderstood statement of Walton's. But there are writers on the Forty-five whose command of the subject is such that it is not shaken or questioned in the present work. Thus, the chapter "In the Heather" is very much indebted to Mr. W. B. Blaikie's 'Itinerary of Prince Charles Edward Stuart' which was published by the Scottish History Society in 1897 as a supplement to 'The Lyon in Mourning.'

In estimating the nature of Mr. Lang's book we must keep close to the central figure, for this is a true biography and not the story of one short episode in a long life. The Forty-five stands boldly in the foreground, but what comes before it is more than a prologue, while what follows it is more than an epilogue. Mr. Lang exclaims that he is called both a Jacobite and a Whig, and he will certainly please no blind partisan by his treatment of Charles Edward. The Jacobite will not find the praise he gives James III. and Cardinal York a sufficient compensation for his account of Charles Edward's weaknesses in later life. The Whig will not forgive his extreme interest in the fortunes of the House of Stuart. But he writes neither to appease those among the Scotch who are up in arms over 'Pickle the Spy,' nor to gratify the Nonconformists who see in the last Jacobite rising only the wiles of the Pope. Probably the thought of offending the Whigs has disturbed him little, but a Scotchman needs some fortitude to tell his countrymen the foibles of their Prince as these would be related by a German historian who had mastered the subject.

Charles Edward was a spirited boy, with a marked fondness for field sports and an equally strong prejudice against regular studies. Mr. Lang calls him the worst speller of the century, and even in an age when the forms of words were still rather fluid, his vagaries with the pen must have appeared shocking. Yet at the age of fourteen he fought with the Duke of Liria and the Spaniards against the Imperialists at Gaeta, and "entered a position whence the besieging generals had retired under fire of artillery." He had from the first the physical vigor which surprised his companions in the flight from Culloden, when he proved that he could walk farther and drink more whiskey than the Highlanders themselves. He particularly loved shooting. "He had spirit, personal courage, and, when he chose, an accomplished address and distinguished manners."

The qualities which Charles Edward brought with him to Scotland were not of a kind to help him in detaching Whig noblemen from the Hanoverian interest, but they awakened enthusiasm among the loyal Jacobites, and were solid enough to secure respect for their owner throughout the whole campaign. He had Danton's audacity, and was ever for action when a question arose between it and delay. On the eve of Prestonpans he drew his sword and said: "Gentlemen, I have flung away the scabbard; with God's assistance I don't doubt of making you a free and happy people." At Derby he would have pushed forward contrary to the advice of Lord George Murray and the chiefs. After the retreat, he would have given final battle on the southern fringe of the Highlands, instead of falling back to Inverness. Moreover, while he was dashing, and favored the boldest measures, he was not corrupted by the brief success which brought him power and adulation. He was temperate and gave no ground for scandal. Both in youth and when striking for his Cause, he was attractive, though never a genius. It was forced inaction which corrupted him. Said Lucius Cary, Lord Falkland: "I pity unlearned gentlemen in a rainy day." If not by want of learning, Prince Charles was demoralized by lack of application and of useful employment in the rainy days and years which followed Culloden.

"Hope and Despair" is the title which Mr. Lang places at the head of his chapter on Charles Edward's life during the next twenty years after his return from Scotland. The Prince was always plotting and always wandering; now contented with a Scottish mistress, now trying to get a German wife; now taking money which came from the coffers of the Holy See, and now professing a willingness to abjure Romanism if only he could become King of England thereby. It is a sad record of intrigue, disappointment, and moral decadence. The virtues which were eminent at the short-lived court of Holyrood no less than in the field, were rapidly lost, and Charles declined to a state of soul which is revealed in his latest portrait—that by Pompeo Batoni. His marriage to Louise of Stolberg did not lead to regeneration, and his wife's misconduct with Alfieri was the last disgrace of his sad life. Even Voltaire was moved to see a fatality in the misfortunes of the Stuarts, and the last drop was added by the Italian tragedian. Mr. Lang says wittily: "A young poet lover of another gentleman's wife is very well. But when the lover has perpetually a horticultural eye on the cultivation of his talents and fame through the assistance of his passion, then one can only be sorry for the woman whom he finds serviceable in a poetical way." *A fortiori* one must be sorry for the husband, especially if he be a ruined and neglected prince.

Such was Charles Edward, but who were his supporters? We shall say nothing about the Jacobite discords and jealousies which made the vagrant courts of James III. and Charles III. uncomfortable places of

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residence, nor about the villanies of the Forty-five. Murray of Broughton and Simon Fraser, besides the traitors of minor note, may be dismissed without regret. So, too, may the nobles of England, who looked upon Prince Charles and George II. in much the same way that Bryan and McKinley were regarded by thousands of voters in our late elections. Neither was desired, but one must be chosen. The English peerage stood by the Hanoverians, mainly because they typified act of Parliament rather than divine right. The staunch and sincere followers of Prince Charles were the chiefs who felt that a Prince of the blood royal had the same right to their allegiance which they had to the allegiance of their own clansmen and vassals. As for the latter, a sentence from Wade's Report on the Highlands, 1724, portrays the general state of mind: "They think it a most Sublime Virtue to pay a Servile and Abject Obedience to the Commands of their Chieftains, altho' in opposition to their [Hanoverian] Sovereign and the Laws of the Kingdom."

We hope that the text of this book may be printed less expensively, even at a sacrifice of all the illustrations. In such an event an index should be furnished, for a large amount of detail is given, and there is no analytical table of contents. The only fault which we can find with Mr. Lang relates to the form of proper names, both European and Scottish. He has not always taken care to correct mistakes of spelling which occur in his sources.

SMITH'S TROUBADOURS AT HOME.

The Troubadours at Home: Their Lives and Personalities, their Songs and their World. By Justin H. Smith, Professor of Modern History in Dartmouth College. Two volumes, with 178 illustrations. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Among the few cheerful episodes that find a place in the conventional accounts of the Middle Ages, the most cheerful and attractive is that of the life in southern France immediately before the tragedy of the Albigensian crusade, which finds its fullest expression in the songs of the troubadours. Perhaps the shocking end of the brief comedy has served to enhance somewhat its fascination. However that may be, the general interest and importance of the theme have long invited a more adequate popular treatment than those that have hitherto been at the disposal of the general reader. There are a score of technical periodicals devoted exclusively, or largely, to Romance philology; these, together with the numerous monographs constantly appearing in this field, have accumulated in the last twenty years a mass of information with which very few persons can possibly acquaint themselves. Prof. Justin Smith's purpose of giving the public at large the chief results of all this special investigation with which he has patiently familarized himself, will be heartily appreciated by all who are interested in the history of literature or the course of European culture.

The fragmentary character of the information that has come down to us in regard to the lives of the troubadours, and the danger that their most spirited productions may appear dull and pointless when judged apart from their music and the circumstances of their audience and surroundings, has led Mr. Smith to give a somewhat singular form to his work. *Revista* and *Zeitschrift* formed a necessary beginning, but they are warmed by no Provençal sun. After the days in the library the second step was to travel over the ground—

"to prepare a real stage-setting; another was to reconstruct the personalities of the troubadours according to their poems, environments, and what we know of their lives, as, indeed, one could not help doing when treading the ground they trod, with the mind full of their sayings and doings; a fourth was to translate specimens of their poetry in the original forms, with some authentic illustrations of their music; and the last was to combine this material with pictures, incidents of travel, and descriptions of existing things so as to induce if possible a sense of actuality."

The author meets the possible imputation that he is verging upon historical fiction by assuring the reader that his object is solely to state and illustrate fact. "I beg leave to assure the reader, too, that I have used imagination only to combine facts, or, where knowledge ends, to supplement without falsifying it. Further, I have scrupulously indicated in the text itself or in the notes all that I have invented." Indeed, the first thing that we come upon is a very effective pledge of sincerity, a bibliography, including the names of thirty-one periodicals and over four hundred writers, from Vincent of Beauvais to Gaston Paris. At the end of each volume are nearly a hundred pages of notes in fine print, and the work closes with a synoptical table and a good index intended to permit a systematic grouping of the scattered information in the text. In short, the author has done his best, by acquainting himself with the most unimpeachable sources of information in the recent French, German, and Italian scientific literature, to prepare himself—as few writers who feel moved to appeal to the general public have the patience or training to do—to furnish a correct although readable account of the troubadours and the general culture which they represent. Mr. Smith is gifted, moreover, with a good, clear style, abundant resources, and a light touch.

He travels from place to place with his kodak slung over his shoulder and the old verses running in his head. He starts at Aix, which, since it offered practically nothing to suggest any particular troubadour, appeared a good place to make a few general reflections upon the tribe as a whole. But why seek an explanation for them in that sturdy old illusion, so often left by scholars for dead, of the fatal year 1000? Mr. Smith even enhances the legend (for which there is absolutely no contemporaneous authority), by the quaint conceit that after trembling humanity—whom all the chronicles show us as busily preoccupied with marrying and giving in marriage as usual—had seen the fatal year go by, they concluded that the destruction of the world was reserved for the millennium from the Lord's death, "and another whole generation shuddered under the black shadow of doom and damnation." This illustrates one weakness of Mr. Smith's work. His very considerable knowledge of the literature of the troubadours, and unusually keen comprehension of their life and ambitions, are unsupplemented by the necessary acquaintance with all those social, political, and intellectual elements that are conveniently, if somewhat vaguely, summed up in the words "Mediæval Church." He deals with this institution and its influences in that spirit of covert, although, doubtless, quite unconscious, hostility traditional among Protestant writers. There is no indication in his long list of books that he has more than glanced at the history of the most powerful factor in mediæval culture. Had he reckoned with Mr. Lea's works, for example, he would hardly have extolled the Albigensian creed so unconditionally, nor would he have said that Dominic invented the Inquisition. The statements are misleading, too, that both of the mendicant orders were "discountenanced by the Pope till he dared resist no longer," and that the Albigensians were in certain points clearly the forerunners of Luther.

From Aix we are conducted to Carpentras; are told how it looks to-day, and something of Gui de Cavaillon and Raimbaut de Vaqueiras. At Monferrat we are reintroduced to Raimbaut, and have an opportunity to learn more of him. At Montpellier we meet Pière de Corbiac; at Marseilles, Pière Vidal. Thence to Foix, and then, with some intervening stops, to Albi, where we review the terrible episode with which its people were associated—ending at Poitiers, with the last of the troubadours, Guiraut Riquier. All the way the reader—at least he who possesses *une âme sensible*—feels hurried, and is confused by a series of impressions as little rationally sequent as those received from the windows of an express-train. He is taught his history by innuendo, his biography by anecdote, and his literary criticism as surreptitiously as may be, for fear that he may otherwise be bored.

There are lucid moments when the author forgets to distract, and shows only his most amiable characteristics. At Anduze we come upon the trail of Ugo de Saint-Cire:

"Ugo seems to have been something of an exquisite. To borrow yesterday's argot of the Paris drawing-rooms, he was cut out for a 'zebra,' the ornamental fetch-and-carry of an elegant mondaine. He delighted to vow, protest, and implore. He would talk of kissing his inamorata's feet; declare the little purse that she made him worth a star or two; and beg a million pardons when he cared not a straw for one. He always wore a compliment in his right eye and an impertinence in his left, and could say either in such a way as to make it seem the other. An interesting cough, an elegant headache, a charming languor, and a seductive melancholy were also in his baggage. . . . As a lady's man, he was aptly contrived; lively, companionable, sentimental, never in love, but always able to appear so, as the biography states; always ready with a song, fully stocked with gossip, glad to be petted, and mightily happy to be ordered about on dainty errands. With men, however, it was different. His patrons—bold, vigorous barons—quickly discovered two vices in his making up: he was expensive, and he was lazy; and from these vices grew, I take it, his two unfortunate broils. The story of each is expounded in a *terso*. First, it was the Count of Rodes."

Had the author frankly given up the hope of beguiling that class of readers who are to be caught only by the chatty journalistic bait, and, by omitting his *impressions de voyage*, which are generally quite unrelated to his real theme, confined himself to his vivacious accounts of the individual singers and his clever versions of their songs, and occasionally given us admirable passages like the following, his two volumes would have become one, and formed a very important and permanent contri-

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bution to the popular literature of the subject:

"It was precisely in the land of the troubadours and keeping time by the music of their songs that a gay, brilliant, and polished society was first developed in the modern world. Partly by instinct, partly by feeling, and partly by taking thought, a code of ideas and a system of conduct were elaborated, to break and put in training the rude ways and ungoverned passions of the feudal world. The starting-point was the love for women, as we have already discovered. As a result of love came that *joi* of which we already know, a gladness and lightness of heart that illuminated and vivified the inner world like another sun, and prompted to all noble, beautiful, and self-denying acts. *Joi* led especially to the boundless generosity that frequently almost ruined wealthy nobles, and even made robbers of them sometimes. Along with such qualities went naturally a passionate fondness for social pleasure, witty conversation, and gallantry. All these together were summed up in the word *joven*, that youngness or young-heartedness which has adready been mentioned more than once; while feebleness of spirit and meanness of life were signified by the contrary word, oldness. Over all this were thrown bonds of self-control and moderation, expressed by another word always on the lips, *mesura*, measure, which endeavored to bring even the virtues into æsthetic form. The precious fruit of so much striving was known as *cortesia*, courtliness, the perfect bearing and conduct of a finished gentleman, according to the code of chivalry and poetry . . . These were the principles that guided the court of Béziers. But we must not go to the other extreme and take the people too seriously. In a very real sense they were, by Anglo-Saxon standards, only grown-up children. Indeed, they were almost literally such. As we learn from the poem of 'Flamenca,' love began to claim a girl at thirteen, at fifteen she was marriageable, at sixteen she was aging."

It is to be regretted that one who was so well prepared, by study, natural insight and humor, and command of an easy and flexible style, should not have had more confidence than he has shown in the readers to whom his book should appeal. Had he counted upon even very mediocre powers of concentration and attention, he would not have fallen into a habit of sprightly discursiveness which sometimes suggests a scholarly Miss Bates.

WALLACE'S STUDIES.

Studies, Scientific and Social. By Alfred Russel Wallace. Macmillan. 1900. 2 vols. 8vo, pp. 541 and 543. With 114 illustrations.

Fifty-two essays, one for every card in the pack, in the four suits of geology, evolutionary biology, anthropology, and sociology, written in Wallace's clear, flowing style, and with all his argumentative force and ingenuity, full of information upon all sorts of matters of curiosity, afford nothing more interesting among all these than their portraiture of the writer himself. Not quite a typical man of science is Wallace; not a man who observes and studies only because he is eager to learn, because he is conscious that his actual conceptions and theories are inadequate, and he feels a need of being set right; nor yet one of those men who are so dominated by a sense of the tremendous importance of a truth in their possession that they are borne on to propagate it by all means that God and nature have put into their hands—no matter what, so long as it be effective. He is rather a man conscious of superior powers of sound and solid reasoning, which enable him to find paths to great truths that other men could not, and also to put the truth before his fellows with a demonstrative evidence that another man could not bring out; and along with this there is a moral sense, childlike in its candor, manly in its vigor, which will not allow him to approve anything illogical or wrong, though it be upon his own side of a question which stirs the depths of his moral nature. One cannot help entertaining a great esteem for him, even when he is most in earnest and at his *isms*.

A poor reviewer needs to summon all his professional omniscience to comment upon fifty-two discussions with such a range as these; but he can plead the stern exigencies of space as a reason for only noticing a few of them. The seventh essay gives a remarkably luminous and distinct popular account of the different families of monkeys. The reader is disposed to wonder what set Alfred Russel Wallace writing such indisputable matter; but he finds out what it was when, the description being done, in reviewing the order, he pronounces monkeys to be rather low down in the scale of quadrupedal life, both physically and mentally. He still acknowledges that man is the crown of the animal kingdom in both respects. One of these days, perhaps, there will come a writer of opinions less humdrum than those of Dr. Wallace, and less in awe of the learned and official world—for why is not this as supposable as a fourth dimension of space?—who will argue, like a new Bernard Mandeville, that man is but a degenerate monkey, with a paranoiac talent for self-satisfaction, no matter what scrapes he may get himself into, calling them "civilization," and who, in place of the unerring instincts of other races, has an unhappy faculty for occupying himself with words and abstractions, and for going wrong in a hundred ways before he is driven, willy-nilly, into the right one. Dr. Wallace would condemn such an extravagant paradoxer. If a man must indulge in paradox, let him do so in moderation.

Somewhat like the monkey essay in method is the first one in the book, which sketches, not without artistic skill, the Yellowstone Park, the somewhat differently wonderful Grose valley in New South Wales, and other inaccessible valleys, the text being helped by excellent photographs (all the illustrations in the book, by the way, are choice); but all this is but a prelude to an argument that these wells, as they might be called, with their lofty vertical sides, have been worn out by running water.

The anthropological essays relate mainly to the Australians and to the Polynesians; though there is interesting information about the Malays, the Papuans of New Guinea, the Veddahs of Ceylon, the Ainos of Japan, and the Khmers of Cambodia, ancient and modern. The admirable portraits here are, of themselves, mines of instruction. The Australian physiognomies, with their large, round heads, broad and good foreheads, beetling brows, shapely ears, good muscular development, and full beards, would be remarkably European in the impression they make, were it not for their wide mouths, thick lips, and great gobs of noses. The only Aino face here shown has a still better forehead, an excellent nose, not a bad mouth, and might perfectly well pass for a modern Greek of superior intelligence. The Veddahs are naked and completely savage huntsmen, looked upon by the other inhabitants of Ceylon as little higher than wild beasts; yet their faces betoken tremendous intensity and no little subtlety of intellect, refinement of judgment, humanity of feeling, observation, power of will, along with utter absence of civilized discipline. When Wallace pronounces these three races to belong to the same fundamental division of the human race as ourselves, the feeling their portraits excite assents to it. With the sculptured heads of the ruins in Cambodia, it is different. This civilization is not very ancient. It was in all its grandeur only about six centuries ago; and the most ancient work goes back only to 250 B. C. But the faces recall the theory of M. de la Couperie that Chinese civilization was derived, probably indirectly, from Babylonia, about 2300 B. C., and was brought by a tribe which slowly migrated from Western Asia, perhaps Bactria or Chorasmia. For, along with Mongol eyes, we see high foreheads, strong jaws, somewhat Assyrian mouths, and remarkably fine, large noses, of a peculiar character. The two untrustworthy drawings of modern Khmers look European enough, but do not in any respect resemble the ancient sculptures, except in their general intelligence.

In regard to the Polynesians, whom Wallace also believes belong to the Caucasian stock (for he takes it for granted that there is such a stock), it can be only a piece of self-complacency for us to deem them like ourselves, since they are far superior physically, as well as in the sentiments which their portraits bespeak; nor do they strike us as intellectually much below us. Their inferiority, if they have any, shows itself here only in possibly defective energy. Wallace combats the theory, founded on their traditions and language, that they came from Malaysia, and certainly shows that, physically and morally, they are the very antipodes of the Malays, while the Malay words in their languages belong to too modern a dialect of Malay to prove anything. But he quite fails to notice that there are other resemblances between the languages of a deeper character, such as the prevalence of disyllabic roots in both, the use of intensive reduplications (*bertanistanisan* is "wept greatly" in Sumatran, *kaukauwa* is "strong" in Fijian), the running of words together into a peculiar kind of compounds (like *vakayinokaukauwataka*, "to cause the body to be strong," in Fijian; *ikinapapaghampas*, "a reason for submitting to severe beating," in the intermediate Tagala language; and in the Malay languages, though the compounds are not so extraordinary, they are formed in the same way, as *mendupa*, "to fumigate with incense," in Sumatran, *itel*, "seen by him" in Dyak), and the use of a particle to introduce statements of fact. It is surprising, too, that Wallace, with his eye for spying out arguments, should not have seen that the late introduction of words from Malaysia, but not from further north in Asia, goes towards showing that the original migration most likely took the same course.

The general reader will be glad to learn from these volumes what an old Darwinian, a Darwinian before Darwin's hypothesis was known, thinks now of that question, and of Neo-Darwinianism, and of the last utterances of Romanes. He will learn, to begin with, what, of course, is common knowledge with the biologists, that variation in reproduction is far commoner and far greater than it was supposed to be when Darwin wrote—so much so that adaptations might be effected, if need be, like lightning (geological lightning, we mean), or, say, in a few

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centuries; and that the real reason why it is the insensible, and not the large, variations that are efficient in natural selection is, that the changes in the environment are so slow that, a species having been already adapted to one state of its environment, any variation not quite minute would render it less fitted for continuance than none at all. He will also observe that the author draws a strong line between the acceptability of natural selection as the only cause of the differentiation between allied species, which he holds to be as good as proved, and the acceptability of it as the cause of the differentiation between families and higher classes, which he thinks extremely doubtful. He is decidedly disposed to accept the doctrines (or some of the doctrines) of Weismann, although he sometimes slips back into modes of thought which we venture to think inconsistent with those doctrines. Thus he says:

"We may, I think, say that variation is an ultimate fact of nature, and needs no other explanation than a reference to general principles which indicate that it cannot fail to exist. Does any one ask for a reason why no two gravel-stones, or beach-pebbles, or even grains of sand, are absolutely identical in size, shape, surface, color, and composition? When we trace back the complex series of causes and forces that have led to the production of these objects, do we not see that their absolute identity would be more remarkable than their diversity? So, when we consider how infinitely more complex have been the forces that have produced each individual animal or plant, and when we know that no two animals can possibly have been subject to identical conditions throughout the entire course of their development, we see that the perfect identity in the result would be opposed to everything we know of natural agencies."

But if he refers to vicissitudes in the life of the individual animal in question, they have no bearing on variation at birth; while if he refers to vicissitudes of his parents' lives, Weismann often speaks as if such circumstances could have no effect upon the germ-plasm, and often makes the offspring a mathematically exact resultant of the germ-plasms of its parents, in so far as they enter into it, and quite independent of aught else. Wallace, however, does not go so far as positively to deny the transmission of acquired characters; he only maintains that there is no real evidence of such a thing. If there should ultimately turn out to be such evidence, the theory of germ-plasm would, apparently, collapse at once; and Wallace seems to admit that the Darwinian theory must stand or fall with germ-plasm.

We do not mean to discuss Mr. Wallace's socialistic doctrines. We only note that he holds, at once, strongly to the freedom of the individual and to socialistic arrangements, such as the state owning all the land, issuing paper money, etc.

Cathedrals of France; Popular Studies of the Most Interesting French Cathedrals. By Epiphanius Wilson, M.A. (Eremita Peregrinus), Author of 'Dante Interpreted,' etc. With over two hundred illustrations. New York: The Churchman Company. 1900. Pp. 208.

This is a reprint from the *Churchman* of a series of articles. The illustrations are half-tone prints made from photographs, which are for the most part familiar to the collectors of such material; but it need hardly be said that those collectors are few, and the contents of their portfolios unknown except to themselves and their coworkers. It is to be regretted that a serious attempt could not have been made to illustrate each important building completely; or, if that is too great a demand, to illustrate each in such a way that its abundance should make up for the necessary shortcomings in another case. Thus, one does not find in any part of this volume, or in all its parts taken together, an adequate rendering of the great feature, the crowning glory, of the French Gothic churches, their chevet, or rounded east end. This magnificence is hinted at in the little picture on page 137, giving the south flank and east end of Bourges, and again in the view of the north flank and east end of Notre Dame at Paris; and the way in which the architectural effect in question is produced is explained by the picture on page 122 of the flying buttresses of Notre Dame. Still, the criticism must stand. If, indeed, the photograph, on page 85, of the east end of Le Mans Cathedral were a better picture, if it were not so insignificant in its effect of light and shade, it might be thought that even that unusual composition, that even that apse of altogether exceptional design, would suffice, so great is its splendor, to remove the imputation. One would still find himself wishing for an adequate picture of the east end of Bourges, and a picture such as is not allowed us at all of the chevet of Rheims.

So likewise with the sculpture of the cathedrals. It would have been possible to give a far more ample representation of that mass of associated fine art which constitutes the portal of a great thirteenth-century church. Six photographs are devoted to the Cathedral of Bordeaux without representation of any one of the beautiful towers which adorn and accompany it. Nine photographs are devoted to the strange fortified church at Albi, but none to that marvellous south porch, that jewel of the transition from florid Gothic into Renaissance, which is one of the chief glories of the South. Nine photographs are devoted to Chartres, yet there is nothing to explain to the student the plan and disposition of either the north or the south porch, both together the chief glories even of this church, so rich in art of many kinds.

The above shortcomings are pointed out that the book may be rightly understood rather than by way of blame. There are here so many pictures with that evident truthfulness which fairly well-reproduced photographs give, that the reader might suppose that nothing else was to be desired. Two hundred illustrations devoted to thirty-three cathedrals would seem on hasty thought all that could be asked for, and it is to correct that error, which is so easy to fall into, that these remarks are made. The difficulty of getting together a sufficient number of rightly chosen photographs of these buildings is greater than one would suppose. No one who has not tried to purchase such photographs, let us say in Paris, can form any idea of how reluctant are the dealers, how slow in their response to the fitful demand, how determined they are to compel the buying public to be satisfied with two or three photographs of that which requires three hundred to do it justice. One building, say the Cathedral of Rheims, has been adequately rendered because an enthusiastic photographer was on the spot ready to take advantage of opportunities. Another, say the Cathedral of Rouen, was, a few years ago, not to be had at all in photography except in the half-dozen views of the outside from popular points of view which were for sale in the stationery shops and book shops of Rouen and Paris. Photographs of Meaux are not to be had in the great centres, and no one seems ever to have heard of Laon until you reach a point not farther distant than say Soissons in the same region of France. Nothing but the placing of orders on the spot with photographers in the city, or in the immediate neighborhood of the city, in which the cathedral stands would have produced a better show of photographs than are given here; and so the shortcoming and the adequate explanation of its cause should always go together. This is the more to be urged because there are some photographs in this book which are really surprising—some which even the experienced student of such things wonders at and asks himself whence they came.

The text is marred by that hasty acceptance of some general propositions which is common in popular presentations of subjects as remote as this of Gothic architecture, and which is so very much to be regretted. "There is a sameness about Bourges, Chartres, Rheims, and Tours which shows that they were all inspired by Amiens, the first and most complete example of thirteenth-century churches" (p. 102). "The first aim of the Gothic architect was to secure altitude" (Introduction). "The great aim of the French architect was to secure height in the interior of his church—towers and spires of height greatly disproportionate to the height of the roof-ridge are more characteristic of English and of Spanish than of French churches" (pp. 113-114). Such dicta are misleading, and all the more so because they are so far akin to verity, they have so much approach to the true explanation, that they are "taking" and please persons who are on the lookout for fresh ideas about architecture. And the worst of it is that it takes so much hair-splitting to point out the essential error contained in such a statement as that the Gothic architects were in search of great height. Yet there is in this text, together with very much accurate and suggestive description, a certain amount of unusually clear insight. Thus, the author expresses his view that the west front of Notre Dame is not adequately Gothic; he thinks "that the Roman, or rather the Græco-Roman, spirit rather than the Gothic spirit prevailed in this matchless composition." And one is reminded in reading this of a curious discussion that took place not long ago in the columns of a Boston journal of architecture, a discussion as to the relative value of certain façades, and which resulted in the choice of the west front of Notre Dame as one of them. That any part of a Gothic church should be called a façade, and that with some show of reason, is certainly a criticism on the west front of Notre Dame which is worthy to rank with that of our present author as in a sense descriptive. It is not to the west front of Notre Dame that one should go to study Gothic art of the prime.

The attention given by the author to the domed and other round-arched churches of the centre and the southwest is very agreeable to see and will be useful. The views within and without of Angoulême Cathedral are most attractive, and the examination

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given in photograph and in text to St. Front of Périgueux is not diminished by the fact that the unhappy church has been remade in our own time. In the spirit of optimism which the bookmaker of the present day cannot help believing is necessary to his proper acceptance as a serious writer, an attempt is made to apologize for the villanous restoration carried out under the direction of the architect Abbadie (not Abardie as the name is printed here, p. 17); but this attempt loses its power for mischief when it is followed by the entirely correct statement that "these restorations have been very much resented by archæologists." Undoubtedly so! One should read the account of that expedition of certain English architects to the "domed churches of the Charante" to see how delicately they put it to the bishop when he asked them how they liked the restoration. Said one of the architects to the bishop, "We are glad we had seen the church before the restorations were begun."

Dictionary of the Bible; Dealing with its Language, Literature, and Contents. Edited by the Rev. J. Hastings. Vol. III. Kir-Pleiades. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1900. Pp. xvi, 896.

This third volume follows the methods and ideals of its predecessors. It endeavors to meet the needs of two circles, the readers of the English Bible and the students of the original. It therefore starts with the English version and passes from it back to the originals when that seems necessary. Thus, a prominent feature is the series of articles by the general editor on archaic, anomalous, or in any way difficult English words used in the Authorized or Revised Versions. These treat the old version as an English classic, illustrating and explaining its language at considerable length; for example, the article on *make* runs to nearly three columns, and that upon *of* runs to four. Yet, in spite of the excellence of the treatment, it may be a question whether too much space has not been given to consideration of the literary form of a version, and to explanations which have no historical or theological bearing. In strange contrast, only some two and a half columns are given to Micah; and this is only one example of a disproportion that is frequent. Another outstanding feature is the space given to Biblical theology. There are excellent articles on Law in the Old Testament and the New, by Driver and Denney respectively. It may be worth noticing that that by Driver is one of the few cases of a long article written by a scholar of the first rank. König, Nowack, Nestle, Swete, for example, are represented by comparatively minor contributions, and the longer articles have generally fallen to younger and less prominent men. Yet if this renders them of less authoritative weight, it also guards against the introduction of novel views into a book which should represent clearly settled results. The chances are that a younger man will compile rather than present a pet hypothesis of his own. Other theological articles of weight are on the Lord's Supper (Plummer), Mediator (Adeney), Miracle (J. H. Bernard), Mystery (A. Stewart), and Philosophy (T. B. Kilpatrick). There is also much theological matter scattered through the other articles, and on this very account the edifying remarks which some contributors think it necessary to make, do not stand out so curiously as in 'Cheyne.' Still, the reflection on p. 431 that we can see a testimony to the spiritual mission of the Jews in their never having enjoyed the constitutional privilege of coining money in silver or gold, has ludicrous aspects. The profane might contend that the Jewish state was never anything but a two-penny half-penny affair at the best and did not get beyond a copper basis.

Among the articles of importance may be mentioned Language of the Old Testament and Apocrypha (D. S. Margoliouth; interesting and most characteristically eccentric), Language of the New Testament and Maranatha (J. H. Thayer; excellent), Latin Versions (H. A. Kennedy; very full and valuable), Magic (Whitehouse), Marriage (W. P. Paterson), Medicine and separate medical articles (A. Macalister), Natural History and many separate articles on the same topic (G. E. Post; generally inadequate and unsatisfactory), New Testament Canon (V. H. Stanton), Old Testament Canon (Woods), Palestine (Conder), Paul (G. G. Findley), Peter and his Epistles (F. H. Chase; very accurate and satisfactory). Egyptian subjects are handled by F. L. Griffith and W. M. Müller, and the geography of Asia Minor by W. M. Ramsay. Apocalyptic and apocryphal studies are dealt with very fully and thoroughly by Burkitt, Charles and James, the little group of English scholars who have already done so much in that direction. Similar praise for exceptional scholarship and detailed carefulness must be given to the articles on versions. In fact, the less vital, theologically, the subject, the more thorough seems to be the treatment.

The book, in short, will be used with advantage by all non-professional students of the Bible. Nor can the professional student afford to disregard it. He will consult it often without learning anything, but it will be impossible for him to tell when it may have an article of primary importance. The contributors seem to have been left to give pretty much what they chose, and as much as they chose, and the quality and length of their contributions have varied with their individual learning and zeal, not always according to the importance of their subjects. If Dr. Cheyne is inclined to edit too vigorously, the opposite is true of Dr. Hastings.

A Treatise on Zoölogy. By E. Ray Lankester. Part II. The Porifera and Cœlentera. By E. A. Minchin, G. Herbert Fowler, and Gilbert C. Bourne. The Macmillan Company. 1900. 8vo, pp. x, 414. Illustrated.

This volume forms Part II. of the series of which Part III., including the Echinoderma, has already been noticed in this journal. It includes those groups, popularly known as sponges, jelly-fish, and corals, preceded by a chapter (by the editor) on the cœlomic theory, or the distinctions drawn from embryologic data between the Protozoa and Metazoa. The sponges, as a subdivision of the latter, are contrasted with the rest of the animal kingdom under the name of Parazoa. The several later chapters of the work are devoted to the sponges; the hydroids (which are here definitely separated from the Scyphomedusæ, though the latter are not combined with the Anthozoa); the true jelly-fish; the corals, seafans, and actinians; and the ctenophores, a group of jellylike pelagic animals among which the brilliantly phosphorescent Beroë and Venus-girdle find a place.

This treatise, being intended for the professional zoölogist, is excessively technical, and in examining the present instalment the reader is struck by the flood of technical terms for every imaginable part and function of every organ and combination. It amounts in practice to a special language, entirely incomprehensible to any but the most narrow specialist. To a certain extent such a nomenclature is necessary and helpful to the student; whether the line of what is desirable has been passed or not, the usage of specialists in time to come is the sole means of determining. To the naturalist not a specialist in these groups, it seems as if overdone. Apart from this, however, the several writers are to be congratulated on the clearness with which they have discussed difficult and complex questions, and the impartiality with which they have presented the views of zoölogists not in accord in the interpretation of recondite phenomena. It is probable, as the series advances toward the higher groups, that the use of technicalities will be less profuse and the different sections more available for the use of the average teacher. Possibly the future may bring a genius who will interpret to the non-specialist in comprehensible language the essentials here imbedded like coral polyps in their cells. If not, it is to be feared that zoölogy will become more and more the heritage of the few, barred from the inquiring student by an impenetrable screen of more or less barbarous Græco-Latin neologisms.

The manner in which the work is printed and illustrated calls for the highest praise; the figures, largely original, are of the most satisfactory clearness.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allchin, W. H. A Manual of Medicine, Vol. II. Macmillan. $2.
Ball, Robert. The Elements of Astronomy. Macmillan. 80 cents.
Carrington, Henry. Anthology of French Poetry. Henry Frowde. 75 cents.
Ferguson, Charles. The Religion of Democracy. Funk & Wagnalls Co. $1.
Gleason, C. W. The Story of Cyrus. American Book Co. 75 cents.
Hart, Jerome. Argonaut Letters. San Francisco: Payot, Upham & Co.
Jenney, C. E. Scenes of My Childhood. Fresno, Cal.: Fresno Republican Pub. Co. $1.50.
Lindsay, Maud. Mother Stories. Springfield (Mass.): Milton Bradley Co.
McCarthy, D. A. A Round of Rimes. Boston: Review Pub. Co. $1.
Newcomb, H. T. The Postal Deficit. Washington: W. Ballantyne & Son. $1.
Norway: Official Publication for the Paris Exhibition. Kristiania. London: Sampson Low, Marston & Co. 6 shillings.
Passano, L. M. History of Maryland. Baltimore: W. & J. C. Dulany Co.
Procter, J. The Rosary Guide, for Priests and People. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co. 3s. 6d.
Rostand, Edmond. L'Aiglon. Paris: Charpentier & Fasquelle; New York: Brentano.
Ruskin, John. Sesame and Lilies, and the King of the Golden River. Macmillan. 25 cents.
Schiller, J. C. F. von. Wilhelm Tell, Act I. (Vol. I, series 1. The Ideophonic Texts for Acquiring Languages.) Hinds & Noble.
Seclye, W. J. A New Greek Method. Wooster (Ohio): Herald Pub. Co. 75c.
Sparks, E. E. The Men Who Made the Nation. Macmillan. $2.
Studies in European Literature, being the Taylorian Lectures, 1889-1899, delivered by S. Mallarmé, W. Pater, E. Dowden, W. M. Rossetti, T. W. Rolleston, A. Morel-Fatio, H. Brown, P. Bourget, C. H. Herford, H. Butler Clarke, and W. P. Ker. Henry Frowde.
The Living Age. Vol. 227. Boston.
The New England Primer. 20th Century reprint. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Thwaites, R. G. Collections of the State Historical Society of Wisconsin. Vol. XV. Madison.
Wister, Owen. Ulysses S. Grant (Beacon Biographies). Boston: Small, Maynard & Co. 75c.

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